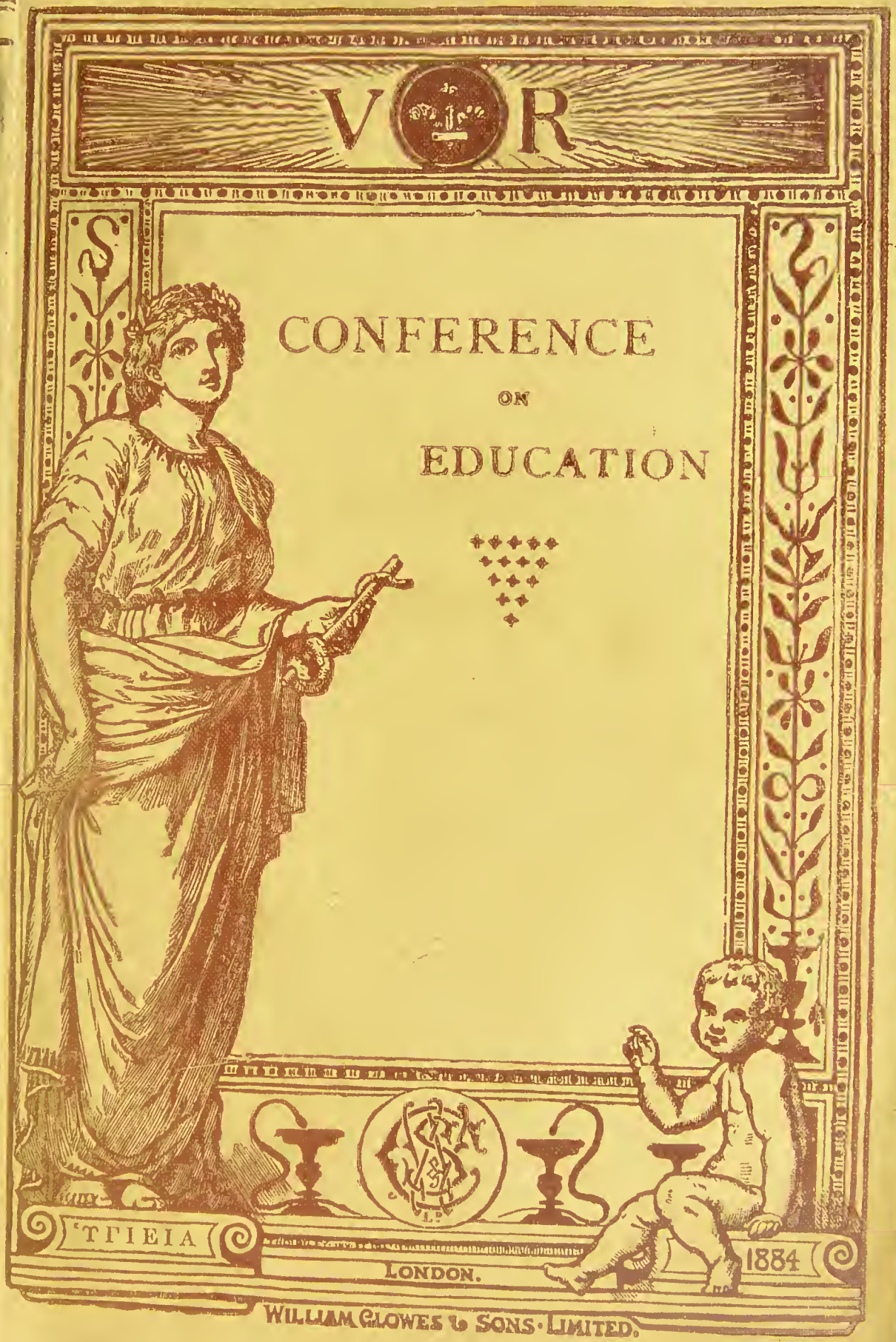
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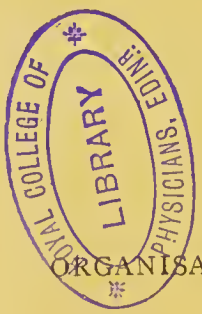

SECTION D.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

ORGANISATION OF INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

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SECTION D.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

MONDAY, AUGUST 4, 2 P.M.

Chairman: The Rev. J. H. RIGG, D.D.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

By C. MANSFORD.

THE advantages to a national system of education of possessing a well-trained staff of teachers have been so decisively established by the educational history of this and other countries during the past twenty years, that I am relieved from the necessity of dwelling upon them. It is sufficient to say that the value and the necessity of training become increasingly obvious at every stage of our educational progress, and that it is now universally acknowledged that a trained teacher is by virtue of his training a more efficient workman.

The immense advantages of training being thus admitted, one of the first questions to be considered is the age at which it should commence.

Now in this country the training is divided into two

periods, the first of which is spent in the school, and the second in the training college ; and the great majority of our teachers have passed through the preliminary stage whether they have graduated in the training college or not. Nearly ninety per cent. of our masters have served an apprenticeship to their business, and it is doubtless to this fact that they owe the high reputation which they hold both in this and in other countries. This preliminary training has had an important bearing upon the progress of our national system, and I regard its retention as necessary to our continued success. Two objections have been, and are still, urged against the pupil teacher system which it may be worth while for a moment to consider. These are, in brief, that it is useless as a training for the teachers, and that it is positively injurious to the schools. But, for our country schools, with an average attendance of from 60 to 120 children, which cannot afford to employ more than one adult teacher, the pupil teacher is a necessity. Neither in England nor in any other country is it possible for one man to teach successfully more than 60 children of different ages and degrees of attainment. Without classification no graduated instruction is possible in such schools ; and the teachers are therefore driven to employ untrained and irresponsible monitors instead of trained apprentices, whose services at the worst are more valuable than those of the casual monitors they displace, and for two or three years of their time not less valuable than those of the unattainable adult assistants. In rural districts, therefore, the pupil teachers are essential to the economy and the efficiency of the schools.

In large town schools, however, it must be admitted that pupil teachers are not so necessary, and for various reasons the head-masters of such schools often employ adult assistants only. But this substitution is not always an advantage to the school. It naturally tends to limit and weaken the influence of the principal teacher, who not unfrequently withdraws from teaching altogether, and becomes simply the manager of a business, instead of being the life and soul of a school. In such cases the

school is reduced to a mere aggregation of cells, in which each assistant reigns absolute and alone, but through which there circulates no common life constituting them an organised whole. In fact, the teacher loses his vital hold on the school, and he feels the want of a pliant and responsive agency to bind together its co-ordinate parts, and to bring them into direct contact with his own personality. Such an agency the pupil teacher supplies, and if judiciously employed, he would prevent the development of a cast-iron system, which effectually thwarts the ideas and plans of the principal teacher, and lowers the school to the standard of his subordinates.

The pupil teacher system has still, therefore, an important function to discharge in our national system. To the smaller schools it is indispensable, and to the larger it may yet be helpful in preserving the continuity and integrity of the school life, and in maintaining through all its parts the free circulation of the spirit and ideas of its chief officer. Pupil teachers may, therefore, be legitimately employed, not only without detriment, but with decided advantage to the schools, and we are thus free to consider the advantages of the system as a preliminary course of training for teachers themselves.

And this leads me to say that the chief advantage of entering the profession by the ordinary method of apprenticeship is that the pupil teacher grows into his work, and thus acquires a practical knowledge of it in all its details and branches. Beginning at the lowest stage, he is gradually conducted through all the classes of an elementary school, and remains long enough at each to gain something like a complete knowledge of all that is required to teach it successfully. An art thus acquired in youth sits lightly upon its possessor, and he uses it with an ease and mastery to which those who learn it later in life can rarely attain. All this is well known to industrial craftsmen, and is just as applicable to the craft of teaching as to any other. There are no teachers so good as those who have been devoted to the work from

their early years. And there is a further and special reason for this in the case of pupil teachers. In their training, the arts of acquiring and of imparting knowledge are happily blended, and these two processes do mutually assist and illustrate each other. Indeed, they are the same process seen from different points of view, and hence it is that every successful teacher is also a learner. He who has ceased to learn is no longer competent to teach, for he has forgotten the steps by which knowledge is acquired, and has consequently lost touch of his pupils. The pupil teacher, therefore, who is both teacher and learner is just in that mental attitude which enables him to enter into the minds of his pupils, to understand their difficulties, and to lead them to their goal. In other words, he is in a favourable position for acquiring the art of teaching.

A further advantage in this method of training is that at every step of his course the pupil teacher is under the direction of an experienced workman. He learns his art by imitation, he catches the spirit of his model, and receives from him practical instruction, immediate correction, and firm support. A youth of fourteen or fifteen years of age is in the very best position both to receive and to profit by such instruction; and when, as in this case, it can be given at the precise point at which its application is required, its value is still further enhanced. In this union, therefore, of theoretical and practical instruction, imparted by the same master, and received during those early and plastic years of a pupil teacher's life, I recognise the most favourable conditions for learning the business of a schoolmaster. And when I add that the moral as well as the intellectual character of the pupil teacher is developed under the combined influences of school and home life, I can scarcely imagine circumstances more favourable for the preliminary training of a teacher. Indeed, if the whole truth is to be spoken, I suspect that college training without apprenticeship would prove less effective for the purposes of national education than apprenticeship without college-training.

Holding such views as to the importance of this early discipline, I think greater care should be taken to co-ordinate it with the Training College course, so that the two together may form one complete and harmonious system. No doubt this was and is the intention of the Education Department, but it does not appear to be kept as steadily in view as it ought to be. The fact is, that the services rendered by the pupil teacher to the school are so valuable, that the teacher is apt to work him too hard, and to leave him too little time for the cultivation of his own powers. The pupil teacher renders important help to the school, and it should not be forgotten that the school owes an important duty to the pupil teacher. It is the place, in short, in which he is to learn the business of a schoolmaster; and, in the apportionment of his time, and the direction of his studies, this object ought to be kept steadily in view. Judging from the revised instructions recently issued to Her Majesty's Inspectors, the Department are fully alive to the importance of this subject, and to the necessity of regulating the hours which the pupil teacher should devote to study and to teaching. I have nothing to add to their directions on this head, which seem to me to be both just and wise. There are, however, some subjects in a schoolmaster's course, which appropriately belong to this early stage of training, because they can never be so easily learned afterwards. Upon these I may be permitted to say one word, and especially in regard to the accidence of a foreign language and the teaching of drawing. It is melancholy to see a stiff-fingered man of twenty and upwards beginning to learn the elements of Freehand and Geometrical Drawing; and it is equally painful for him to spend, nay waste his time, in grinding up declensions and conjugations. This work comes easy to, and sits lightly on, a lad of fourteen, but to begin it six years later is an abuse of a man's powers which can only be justified as a grievous necessity. On the other hand, the more mature age of the student and the increased facilities afforded in training colleges for teaching science, make it

desirable to postpone the advanced stages of science to the later period of training. If, therefore, the teaching of drawing during the apprenticeship were more strongly insisted upon, and the attention of the pupil teacher were limited to learning the elements of one foreign language, which in my judgment should be a modern one, and to the elementary stages of not more than two or three sciences, the Queen's Scholars would possess a more satisfactory knowledge of arithmetic, geography, and grammar, than they do at present ; and the curriculum of the pupil teachers' course being more exactly co-ordinated with the training-college syllabus, the apprenticeship would be, in a truer sense than it now is, a preparatory stage of training for the profession. I proceed to inquire what is the kind of training necessary to complete the course thus begun.

Now, there are not wanting those who would send the ex-pupil teacher into the schools as an assistant, and require him to complete his education by attending lectures at night. But such persons have not sufficiently reflected, either on the work to be done, or on the limited time and strength available for its performance. Let us look first at the subjects to be studied, which turn out to be much more numerous than is commonly supposed, amounting in all to fifteen at least. This multiplicity of subjects is rendered necessary by the fact that an elementary teacher must be prepared himself to teach all the subjects included in the school curriculum, and deficiencies in one class of subjects cannot be atoned for by superior excellence in another. And I need not insist that the teacher's knowledge of these subjects should be systematic, accurate, and, within certain limits, complete. But an accomplished teacher must know more than he has to teach. He must possess a reserve of knowledge on which he can draw in emergencies. This is necessary in order to give him that confidence in himself, and also to secure for him that confidence on the part of his pupils, which are indispensable conditions of his success as a teacher, but which he who is ever traversing the boundary of his

knowledge can never attain. Even should he keep fairly within this boundary, his ignorance of what lies beyond will render him an unsafe and uncertain guide. For, in this respect, teaching is like drawing, where false shading produces a caricature even when the form is correct. So may the teacher by wrong emphasis distort his subject, and by chosing a wrong point of view deprive it of all true perspective and proportion. Hence in the advanced stage of Training provision must be made for revising and completing the pupil teacher's course of instruction. The entire field must be surveyed from a higher standpoint. Inaccuracies must be corrected, omissions supplied, and each subject must be carried to such a limit as will give it the necessary completeness and unity. But if it is necessary that the student in training should thus survey the field of knowledge already traversed, is it not also desirable that the field itself should be enlarged? Ought not a student during his period of training to know something of the earnest struggle and mental discipline required to master thoroughly some important branch of human knowledge? Ought he not to acquire right habits and methods of study? Should he not learn to use rightly and trust confidently the powers of his own mind in new and untrodden paths? Such a discipline is supplied by the systematic study of two or three sciences and of the structure and literature of a foreign tongue. Without this discipline he will never retain the genuine love of study which is the source of a teacher's sympathy and power. He will cease to learn, and therefore cease to teach with any delight to himself, or with any stimulating effect upon his pupils. But if he has really tasted the delight of successful mental effort, if he has so taxed his powers as to bring out what is best in him, he will not fail to catch that true spirit of the student which is also the inspiration of the genuine teacher.

And even yet our survey is incomplete, for I have said nothing as to that most important branch of a teacher's education, viz., the science of education itself. During his

apprenticeship the pupil teacher learns to teach by imitation, and under the guidance of fixed arrangements prescribed by his master. The discipline and drill thus acquired are of the greatest service to him; and, where they are associated with a native instinct for teaching and some power of command, they produce a fair type of teacher. But mere imitation and mechanical routine will not suffice to make a thoroughly efficient teacher, even under the most favourable conditions, and in the average instance they are altogether inadequate. In order to be a good teacher a man must know right methods from wrong. He must also know in what their rightness or wrongness consists. He cannot afford to work in the dark. He must therefore know not only methods, but the principles of method, that he may be able to tread firmly and surely amid the novel combinations and conflicting systems which he will inevitably have to face. Such a study will render corrections and additions necessary; it will be fruitful in suggestions; and it will furnish a safe guide in unforeseen and untried circumstances, thus conducting the teacher more swiftly and surely to his goal than would have been otherwise possible. One further step must be taken. To a knowledge of the principles of method must be added a knowledge of the mental conditions under which they may be successfully applied, all of which implies an acquaintance with the fundamental laws of the human mind, and of the order in which the mental faculties are developed. The necessity of cultivating this branch of a teacher's training is now fully recognised by the Education Department, and no student can now obtain the highest certificate who does not show an acquaintance with those principles of mental science such as is absolutely required for a sound foundation of the art of teaching.

It appears, therefore, that a teacher in training must traverse the entire field of primary school instruction with a view of acquiring accurate and completed knowledge of the ten or twelve subjects which it includes, that he must master one foreign language and two or three sciences not

included in the pupil teacher's course, and that he must add to all this a knowledge of the fundamental principles of mental science and their application to the art of teaching. This is the very minimum which ought to be required, and which, in fact, is required. Now, without adding anything further, I think it will be seen that it implies a course of study which ought not to be undertaken as a parergon,—a mere extra labour to be imposed upon the work of school teaching after the day's task is done. And especially are we forced to this conclusion, when we reflect upon the amount and character of the school work demanded of assistants and ex-pupil teachers. The work of pupil teachers is severe enough, but that of assistants is more exacting still. Their classes are larger, their hours longer, and they are expected to take a share in branches of the school work from which pupil teachers are ordinarily relieved. After such labours it would be impossible for a candidate to bring to his evening studies that freshness and coolness of mind which is the indispensable condition of success. The exciting atmosphere of an evening class-room, whither the student would carry all the anxieties of the day, and which he would enter with wearied nerves and brain, is the very worst for the prosecution of a task which demands the highest exercise of his powers, and is to complete his training for his life's work. The work done under such conditions could not be either complete or permanent, and the attempt to make it successful would be fatal alike to the worker and the work. It seems to me, therefore, that the student in training must be relieved from the pressing duties of school teaching, and be free for a while to give himself wholly to the task of completing his professional studies.

And probably there are few who would dispute the soundness of this conclusion. The period of apprenticeship is notoriously one of severe labour under narrowing conditions, and the work of an assistant is equally exacting, and in some respects quite as contracted. There are therefore great advantages in any arrangement which

takes the student out of his former grooves, and places him amid wider influences and new associations. Among these influences we ought not to overlook the advantage to be derived by students from association with each other. It is in such association with men of his own age and rank, trained under similar but not identical circumstances, and bringing with them the special peculiarities, social and educational, which are distinctive of the localities from which they come, that a student first learns to make a correct estimate of his own position, and to know his own powers. In the discipline thus afforded he throws off his peculiarities, and learns to adapt himself to a new and higher standard. The encouragement and help afforded by communion with fellow-students, and the enlargement and inspiration which such fellowship gives to a young man's life, are among the most potent influences which mould his character. The healthy rivalries, the mutual criticisms, the inspiring friendships and sympathies which are the ruling influences in college life, infuse heart and spirit into a man, and have a most powerful effect upon all his subsequent career. I have used the word College to intimate that, during this period of training, the students should be provided with a maintenance and a home. Without the maintenance, I do not see how they could have that perfect freedom from anxiety and that adequate provision for healthy living, which are essential conditions of successful study ; and, without the home, much of the advantage arising out of the mutual intercourse would be forfeited. Hence I maintain that the training should be conducted in special institutions set apart for the purpose, where the curriculum of teaching is adapted to the special needs of the candidates, and where those who are devoting themselves to a common object may enjoy the advantages of a common life. Even if the strictly professional part of the training could be as effectively provided for without residence, the beneficial effects produced by daily intercourse in a common home are still so great upon the

manners, character, and spirit of the students, that it would be desirable to retain this arrangement for the sake of this advantage alone.

But I am far from thinking that this is the only advantage of our training college system. That system is equally valuable as affording the best conditions for rendering effective the professional training itself. Take only one part of that training, viz. the study of the principles of education. What is needed here is that the outlines of mental science should be applied to the art of teaching. The lecture-room must therefore be in immediate connection with the school-room. The master of method must be alternately lecturer and teacher. The illustrations of his principles will be drawn from the school, and in his supervision and criticism of lessons he will show how to apply the principles established in the lecture-room. This requires that each student should receive individual direction and oversight in the Practising Schools as the supplement to the teaching which he has received in the college. And in a similar way, if not to the same extent, the whole course of instruction should be so co-ordinated with the teaching in the Practising Schools as that the one may eventually sustain and illustrate the other. Without some such adjustment between the theoretical and practical sides of a teacher's training, it is difficult to see how either of them can be effective; and where this is provided for in one establishment, and under one authority, fusing the two branches into one complete system, I think it must be admitted that we have the most favourable conditions for success. This union of the College and the Practising Schools will always give a marked advantage to the training college system over one which treats them as separate factors, and is powerless to combine them in one effective product. The very arrangement, therefore, which supplies the best conditions for the development of personal character, is also most effective in the more special sphere of professional education.

But I ought to apologise for even implying that the

development of the character is not an integral part of a teacher's training. For what is the office of a teacher? Is it one which may be worthily discharged by any man possessing the requisite knowledge and faculty, irrespective of his personal character? Can we thus limit its sphere, even if we are willing and anxious so to do? Can the man be so separated from his work? On the contrary, is not this a calling in which the man is more than his work? In the life of Dr. Arnold I find two letters concerning the appointment of masters to Rugby School, in both of which he begins by saying, "The qualifications which I deem essential to the due performance of a master's duties here may in brief be expressed as the spirit of a Christian and a gentleman." He ends where he began, by saying, "It is my great object to get here a society of intelligent, gentlemanly, and active men, who may permanently keep up the character of the school," &c.; and he further declares that he cares more about these qualities than about scholarship itself. And are not these the qualities to be desired in the teachers of our Elementary Schools, who have so enormous an influence in moulding the character of our national life? For, such preponderating influence they are destined to have, either by their direct instructions, or by the more subtle and potent effect of their general spirit and character. Therefore, for the sake of the children, as well as for the benefit of the students themselves, the provision for their training should be such as will encourage and support them in the cultivation of a virtuous life, and in the adoption of a high standard of personal excellence and professional duty. But a non-resident system not only omits all such provision, but, by exposing inexperienced youths fresh from country homes to the dangers of city life without any effective discipline and oversight, tends to neutralise and even to reverse the moral training they have already received. Under such a system there can be no satisfactory guarantee for the moral character of the students. But residing together under a common rule, and under the immediate control of responsible authorities, who

are at once tutors and guides, an effective discipline is established, and the moral training of the students is provided for. A part of this discipline is secured by the rule of the College, which imposes regularity, punctuality, and habits of order and self-control. But a still more important part is supplied by the directors and teachers of the College. I have already referred to the advantages young men reap from contact with their equals, and I must now add that there are advantages no less great to be derived from association with their superiors and elders. And here I do not refer primarily to the influence wielded by an able lecturer, who sees his pupils two or three times a week behind the desks of a class-room, but forms beyond that no associations with them, and is attached to them by no bond of personal and individual sympathy. I by no means undervalue the influence of such a lecturer, which is often great and fruitful. But in addition to all this, and in connection with it, students require individual oversight and direction, and above all they need the quickening and inspiration which come from daily contact with those older than themselves, and whom they may regard as patterns of knowledge, of wisdom, and of conduct. Now the Training College provides for such an association, and brings the students into such close and constant relationship with the teacher, that he has the opportunity of moulding and educating their character to an extent which cannot be afforded by any non-resident system whatever. Such associations are not only inspiring and refreshing for the time, but they tend to become permanent, and to ripen into established relationships which are constant incentives to fidelity and virtue.

I conclude, therefore, that the College system affords us signal advantages for completing and perfecting the training of our teachers. It provides maintenance and a home for inexperienced youths where they have leisure to complete their studies amid helpful associations, with special advantages for learning the art of teaching, affording

the best opportunities for individual instruction in all branches of their profession, and the only sure guarantee for moral character and training. Taken in conjunction with the pupil teacher system, it forms a complete scheme for learning the business, and acquiring the other qualifications of a schoolmaster; and it may be confidently affirmed that it has worked well, and supplied us with a race of teachers who for knowledge of and general fitness for their work are not inferior to any similar class elsewhere.

ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

By G. B. Davis.

The consideration of this important subject naturally divides itself under these heads:—

What professional training is required?

What kind and amount of training does our present system provide?

What defects are there in our existing arrangements?

And, lastly, what suggestions can we make with a view to improvement?

So little is the necessity for professional training understood and appreciated by the general public that the very title of the paper seems to suggest the necessity for an argument. Not a few, even amongst highly educated men, seem to think that any good scholar can teach a school, and appear to regard all the talk about the Science and Art of Teaching and the study of School Management as at the best fanciful and dreamy, and possibly little better than a species of professional quackery.

This may appear to be both a strong and strange assertion for me to make, and also a particularly unnecessary one in a meeting like the present, where all are more or less interested in this very question, and many are

actively engaged in the work and anxious for further developments. But, nevertheless, I feel compelled to make the assertion, not only because I am convinced of its truth, but also because I believe that to the non-recognition of the need is due much of the apathy and many of the difficulties with which we have to contend.

If my statement be erroneous, and if, on the contrary, the public does recognise the necessity for teachers to be professionally trained, why is it that only the teachers of Public Elementary Schools receive any such training? Where, and by what means, are teachers trained for our Secondary and Higher Schools? Let the Headmastership of a Grammar School fall vacant. The Trustees will be most careful to appoint a ripe scholar; but will they make one single inquiry as to his ability to teach? Undoubtedly they are right in selecting a ripe scholar; but are they right in requiring no evidence of teaching power? There is absolutely no provision whatever for training teachers for such schools; and I say that the one great reason why no such provision exists is that the people most concerned do not in their hearts believe in its necessity. I am quite ready to concede that masters of secondary and higher schools do not require so much training in the Science and Art of teaching as those who have to work in Elementary Schools. The reason is obvious. The master of a higher grade school does not receive his scholars until they have been grounded in elementary knowledge and have passed the days of early childhood; so that they have reached a period when an attempt may fairly be made to begin to develop the character of the student, and when it is useful to the scholars themselves to be accustomed to private study, and to be trained to the habit of acquiring knowledge by their own efforts. Thus, the setting of tasks to be afterwards heard and examined by the masters, and to be accompanied with, or followed by, comments and explanations, succeeds comparatively well with the brighter and more earnest pupils, and does not fail with the duller so completely as the same methods would if applied to very

young children when acquiring the first rudiments of knowledge.

I have been told, in answer to remarks like these, that the ability to teach is a natural gift ; that it comes to some people by intuition ; while others can never become successful teachers ; and that everything depends upon a wise selection of persons who have sympathy with children and a natural fondness for the work. I readily grant all that can be claimed for natural aptitude ; but I contend that this alone is insufficient. A teacher who is naturally adapted to the work will devote his mind to it, and will learn more rapidly by experience than one who takes no lively interest in it ; and a man who is fond of children will attract them, and lead them, far more successfully than one who fails to enter into their thoughts and to sympathise with them. But persons who argue thus might just as well say that a man only requires abundant reading and fondness for the work to become a good surgeon, and ignore the necessity for dissection and practical experience.

I have several times been twitted with the fact that elementary teachers are eligible for appointments in higher schools if they possess the necessary scholarship, but that masters engaged in those higher schools are not eligible for elementary schools. I have replied that well educated teachers promoted from elementary schools almost invariably succeed, because they know how to teach ; but that masters in higher schools cannot succeed when transferred to elementary schools unless they have acquired professional knowledge and skill. In elementary schools, a double qualification is required ; in higher schools, a single qualification. Whenever I have made such a reply, its polite acceptance has been accompanied by a pleasant smile of incredulity that proved, to my mind, that the individual, though answered, was not convinced.

But I do not wish to dwell on this part of the subject ; and my purpose is to speak of teachers of elementary schools. I will, therefore, only suggest as a question which may, perhaps, be worth a little consideration, whether more

conversational lessons, in which the master could convey to his pupils some of the concentrated results of his own more extensive reading, might not be introduced into schools of a higher grade with great advantage to all concerned ; whether more real progress might not sometimes be secured in a single hour than is gained by a week of drudgery ; and whether scholars in such schools might not possibly learn more from their class masters, and be a little less dependent on their private tutors.

But it is in our elementary schools that the special professional training is more required ; because it is in those schools that the children begin to learn. They attend from three years of age. To speak of such scholars as young students would be ridiculous. It would be absurd to expect these little ones to study anything for themselves. Information has to be *implanted* in the scholars by the teacher. I may even say that the real work of learning has to be undertaken by the teacher as well as the work of teaching ; for the teacher is obliged to interest the children, and to keep possession of their minds and thoughts, so as to take them through the processes incidental to the acquisition of whatever he wishes to be learnt. This has to be done even to the extent of constant and excessive repetition, teacher and children working together, so as to impress upon their memories what may have been already understood. A judicious and capable teacher also takes care to develop, as far as possible, the mental powers of the children, so as to increase their receptive capabilities and to quicken their reasoning faculties, and thus to enable them to make more and more rapid progress as time goes on. Now, to do all this well requires considerable study and very great experience. So far from an elementary school teacher having no profession to learn, it may be very fairly said that he has never fully learnt his profession. His plans and methods have to go so much into detail that experience rightly used will lead to continual development and improvement. New ideas will be always suggesting themselves, and after years of practice, the best teachers

will acknowledge they have still more to learn. There is not a point in Grammar, not a principle in Arithmetic, not a fact in Geography, not an element in good reading, no, not even a detail in teaching the alphabet that does not need careful consideration and the exercise of judgment, if the teaching is to be the best possible. Yet, school managers are far too apt to be influenced in their selection of teachers solely by the grade of certificate and the number of science passes a candidate has obtained; and many of those who think about the subject at all imagine that the training consists in the acquisition of some peculiar methods of controlling large numbers, and in nothing else.

We are all desirous of attracting into the profession persons of higher education; but does not the readiness so often shown to appoint these superior young people as assistant teachers side by side with ex-pupil-teachers, and at the same salaries, show that those who make the appointments greatly undervalue the practical teaching power acquired during a four or five years' apprenticeship, and that they incline to the opinion that personal education is, after all, the only qualification required? I am, personally, most anxious that persons possessing higher attainments should be induced to enter the Elementary Schools. I fully believe that an influx of such superior scholars would have an immense influence in raising the tone of our Elementary Schools, and also in rescuing the profession itself from much of that narrowness of ideas, consequent on a closely circumscribed area of thought, which those who wish well to the profession so much regret to observe. But, setting a high value on good teaching, and knowing what an immense and all-important difference the possession or non-possession of good technical training always makes in the professional worth of a teacher, I can but deplore any evidence of a disposition to ignore its necessity, and to regard scholarship as the only essential.

I now propose to consider how far our elementary school teachers get this training which they so much need; and, then, what suggestions I can make with a view to further

improvement. Our method of training teachers is not quite uniform, though it proceeds upon certain definite lines. We recognise that two things are required, viz.: a certain minimum amount of scholarship, and some knowledge of school organisation and ability to teach. But we have been, all along, very much creatures of circumstances. We have not a complete and perfect system based upon well considered theories; but we have a *growth*, which has arisen from earnest efforts made from time to time to improve upon the state of things then existing. We do not apprentice pupil-teachers *because* we are convinced that that is the best method of training teachers for future work as masters and mistresses, even though it may, perhaps, be the best way; but we apprentice them because in 1846 it was considered to be a great improvement upon the old monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster to secure monitors who should be older and better trained. Before the time of Bell and Lancaster there was no system at all; and the efforts of those earnest men were productive of great good throughout the country, inasmuch as they led to thousands of schools being established, in which, through the philanthropy of the religious communities, large numbers of children were taught to read, write, and cypher. The National Society and the British and Foreign School Society had their Normal Schools, in which religious people of the Scripture Reader type were received for a few months to learn how to arrange a school in classes, and to manage a small army of monitors.

It was the celebrated Minutes of 1846 that gave the first real impetus to the training of our teachers. The monitors, being apprenticed under the name of pupil-teachers, were retained in the schools till the age of about 18, and generally obtained a good plain English education, and sometimes something more, as well as a fair amount of practical experience in the work of teaching the ordinary subjects of an elementary school, to classes of 30 or 40 children. Their annual examinations stimulated their own reading, and the visits of Her Majesty's Inspector were occasions on

which they were anxious to show well as class teachers. At the end of the apprenticeship, those who followed out the system contemplated by the Minutes of Council entered Training Colleges, having previously gained a Queen's Scholarship. We are still working very much on these lines. We still have pupil-teachers ; and it is still believed to be the correct thing for those pupil-teachers, when they have finished their apprenticeship, to pass into training colleges. But the whole course has been very much modified ; and the conditions of schools and other circumstances have changed so much that the educational world, so far as Public Elementary schools are concerned, seems hardly the same. The Committee of the Privy Council (now known as the Education Department), having had more and more money placed at its disposal by Parliament, has been enabled largely to increase its grants, and also to extend its influence even into the remotest parts of the country ; and the establishment of School Boards has, during the last fourteen years, not only added enormously to the number of schools, but has also infused new life and vigour into the whole movement. These bodies, originally appointed to supplement existing work, have already obtained the lead, and have gained a hold upon the people, which bids fair before long to make the common schools of this country as popular with the masses as the common schools of Switzerland are there. How have these changes affected the training of our teachers? It must be remembered that as the grants from the Education Department constitute the chief source of income in all public elementary schools, and still more largely so in all training colleges, the regulations of the Department are really the Code of laws by which the work is governed. The Education Department, knowing this to be the case, is no longer satisfied with simply ascertaining whether certain minimum conditions are fulfilled in order to justify the payment of the grant, but studies the wants of the country, and endeavours to devise such a Code as will secure the best results that, under the circumstances, can be obtained.

The standard of education of pupil-teachers and of students in training colleges is as high as it well can be consistently with the opportunities the candidates have enjoyed previous to their apprenticeship and with the time they have been able to devote to their studies. To ensure the acquisition of practical ability as teachers Her Majesty's Inspectors are called upon to award marks for actual teaching to every pupil-teacher at the end of each year of apprenticeship, the students sitting for certificates are required to answer questions in School Management, and after passing their final examinations, they have to serve for a period of not less than 18 months on probation before their parchments are issued. In the training colleges, the students receive a course of lectures on school management, and they are also required to teach in the practising schools for about three weeks in each year. Now, the question is whether these arrangements, which seem to be complete enough in outline, are really sufficient. My own opinion is that they are not.

To begin with : the pupil teachers learning how to grind scholars through standard examinations, though it is worth something, does not of itself afford the best training in the Science and Art of Teaching. Working children up for examinations does not present education in its best aspect, either for the learner or the teacher ; and yet, unfortunately, our Public Elementary School system has been, since the year 1862, almost entirely a system of examinations. It has accomplished gigantic results in the more mechanical parts of education ; results that we cannot afford to forego. But something has been wanting, and this has, at last, been recognised by the Education Department, and an effort has been made to meet the want by means of the merit grant. I think that, in the course of two or three years, the merit grant may possibly be productive of great good ; but I also think that as regards the training of pupil-teachers, one or two additional regulations might be made which would secure for them better instruction as practical teachers, and a more complete preparation for the profession to which they are apprenticed. Even in the Training

Colleges, I fear that the race for good results in the examinations has not been productive of unmixed good. Many of the students enter the Colleges with a very small amount of knowledge, and have to be worked up during two years to a standard which, compared with their condition on entering, is decidedly high. Neither teachers nor students in the Colleges have much time to spare. A few lectures are given to enable the students to answer the School Management paper, but with regard to practical training, the College Authorities are apt to say,—"These young people have nearly all been pupil-teachers, they have learnt how to teach; we need not spend much time upon that, our work is to prepare them for their examinations." Of course, the amount of time devoted to school management and to criticism lessons varies at different institutions; and some no doubt do much more than others in this respect. But I think I may venture to assert that the higher training as educators of the young, which comprises what I have spoken of as the Science and Art of teaching, is very apt to be shelved for the sake of those subjects that tend more directly to good examination passes. In this respect I think our German friends are decidedly before us. They have studied out more elaborately, and even to the minutest detail, the actual work of teaching in all its branches. The students are required to pass examinations before entering their Normal Schools, which give evidence of higher attainments than are required from students entering the Training Colleges in England; and then the great object of attendance at the Normal School is the acquisition of professional Education, strictly so called. The students go there to learn *how to teach*; and although this does not occupy the whole of their time, and their own personal education is continued, yet they secure the very best training as teachers that their instructors are able to give them. Indeed, I am not quite sure that the thing is not carried a little too far in Germany. It is just possible that such a minute elaboration of detail may tend to make the teaching too

mechanical from an opposite cause to that from which we suffer.

I think this may be well illustrated by the Kindergarten. It is not only in England, where it has been so recently introduced, that we may find teachers slavishly using the several "gifts," according to the prescribed rules, without understanding the principles upon which Fröbel taught. I have seen in Germany the most painfully dull performances of this character, performances which contrasted strongly with the lively application of the method which I once saw in Holland, where the mistress was continually inventing new games so as to keep up the interest and produce the intended effect. But the Germans do lay great stress on "method," and I believe that in principle they are right. If we use our apprentices merely to grind out passes in the three R's, and then send them for two years to a boarding school to improve their own education, we may enable them to pass examinations, but we shall not, by our system, lead them to become educational enthusiasts.

But supposing our Training Colleges were accomplishing everything that could be desired ; ought we even then to be satisfied ? I say no, it is impossible ; because there are hundreds, and the number is growing to thousands, of teachers who never enter Training Colleges ; but who, after completing their apprenticeship as pupil-teachers become assistant-masters and mistresses, and then sit for their final certificates as acting teachers.

These young people have hitherto received neither education nor training under any system whatever. They have continued teaching as older pupil-teachers, and no provision has been made for their instruction in any way. The more earnest of them have secured some means of private coaching, and have obtained respectable certificates ; while those less in earnest have forgotten a good deal of what they learnt while they were pupil teachers, and have taken certificates of very low degree. Yet a large proportion of these acting teachers have proved more useful in

actual school work, and in earning Government grants, than many of those who have enjoyed the benefit of two years' residence in a Training College, and who have acquired a greater amount of scholarship. The reason is that constant experience has gradually taught them many useful lessons as teachers, and they have been led, by sheer force of habit, to think of their work in school as the first and most important thing. So much has this been the case, that many practical people may be heard to speak as though high personal attainments were incompatible with efficient teaching power. I shall no doubt be told that the proper course would be for all these ex-pupil teachers to pass through the Training Colleges, and for School Boards and other school managers to avoid engaging as assistant-masters and mistresses any who had not had the benefit of this complete training. Some times the unfortunate denominational difficulty is cited as a reason why more pupil teachers do not pass through the Colleges. At other times the statistical argument is used. Now while it is quite true that most of the Training Colleges are strictly denominational, and while it is also true that all the Training Colleges could not receive the total number of those ex-pupil teachers who pass the requisite examination, and that many are rejected for want of room, yet I do not hesitate to say that these reasons do not fully explain why so many of our pupil teachers become assistant-masters and mistresses, and take their certificates as acting teachers. The chief reason is, that we who have trained them cannot spare them. We want their services in the schools ; while they, on the other hand, have inducements held out to them to become assistant-teachers rather than to go to College.

The time has gone by for large schools to be taught entirely by pupil-teachers. More and more adult teachers are employed every year ; and in our large Board Schools we are gradually adopting the separate class-room system with an adult teacher for every class. We must also remember that the enormous demand for teachers which

suddenly arose while the newly-formed School Boards were so rapidly building schools all over the country has already experienced a lull, and must become less. The number of schools cannot continue to increase at a rapid rate, while all will be training apprentices. If the pupil-teacher system were to be maintained in all the schools as completely as it was twenty years ago in the schools that existed then, we should have thousands of apprentices who could never hope afterwards to find employment as adults; and as a natural result the whole system would collapse. For all reasons, the employment of assistant-masters and mistresses is a much greater necessity now than it ever was before. Seeing then that they are required in such numbers, how can we possibly fulfil the desire of those who say that the ex-pupil-teachers should all pass through Training Colleges? Can we get fully trained college students for salaries of £55 or £60 for the young men, and £35 or £40 for the young women? Of course we cannot; and I sincerely hope we never shall, for if ever the time should come when fully trained teachers can command no higher salaries than these, the time will also have arrived when bright boys and girls belonging to respectable families will cease to become pupil-teachers. Yet for these salaries we can readily secure young ex-pupil-teachers who continued to live at home with their parents, and who are passing through the period that intervenes between the end of the apprenticeship and the obtaining of the full certificate. They, on their side, feel benefited by this special demand for their services. The parents of those who go to college have to pay an entrance fee and to provide them with clothes, books, pocket-money and travelling expenses for a period of two years, and have also to maintain them at home during twelve or thirteen weeks of each year; the income being *nil*: whereas those ex-pupil-teachers who become assistant-masters and mistresses earn sufficient to maintain them while living under the parental roof. It is therefore idle to discuss the question whether ex-pupil-teachers shall become assistant teachers, or whether they

shall all pass through Training Colleges. The fact must stand as it is ; and the most important question at the present time in connection with the training of teachers is not what shall we do in reference to our Colleges and the training given there, but what shall we do for our acting assistant teachers to qualify them as fully certificated masters and mistresses. I have said that up to the present time they have had no assistance whatever, except by accident. The School Board of Birmingham has for several years had Saturday morning classes for these teachers, and several other towns have done something in the same direction. Recently, the Education Department, always ready to listen to suggestions for improvements, has taken up this matter also, and has passed a minute by which small grants are conditionally promised to help to meet the expenses of regular assistance thus rendered. A sum of £10 or £15 will be paid after three years attendance at central classes approved by the Education Department, on account of each teacher who obtains a place in the second or first division on the second year's papers.

The system of central classes has been extended in Birmingham, so that they now comprise classes on one evening in each week as well as on Saturday mornings, for the assistant teachers, and classes on two evenings in each week for the pupil teachers, besides the Saturday mornings, and a half day for those of each year in turn during school hours. I venture to think that the universal establishment and more complete development of this system of central classes for acting teachers will be the chief thing that will occupy our attention in this direction for some time, and the most important point in working those central classes will be to secure such a course of lessons on practical education as will not only prepare the students for the school management paper, which they have to take at their final examination, but will also instil into their minds the true principles of teaching, and will explain, enlarge upon, and illustrate those principles so as to qualify the teacher to give instruction in the best possible manner in all the

classes of the school, and upon all the subjects included in the school time-tables. I fear there is very great danger of this important branch of the work being overlooked. A teacher ought surely to take as much interest in cultivating the minds of his scholars as an amateur florist does in cultivating his favourite flowers ; and he ought to study the processes of development and the methods of treatment as earnestly and carefully, so as to become master of every detail. If the central classes do nothing more than make those who attend them better scholars, all this will be missed.

Now, have I exaggerated the deficiencies of the present system in any way? Let me reply to this possible question by asking two or three questions myself. Is it not a fact that the most able school-masters always prefer pupil teachers trained by themselves, even though comparatively young, to the average assistant whom they can obtain in answer to an advertisement ? Surely any apprentice must become more valuable as he gets older and gains more experience ; but the fact is that only the best teachers train their apprentices well. Again, is it not a fact that, as a general rule, we find a great difference in the teaching capabilities of ex-pupil teachers trained respectively in town and country schools? Those who are trained in small schools have often been the sole helpers of the head teacher. They have had to take part in all departments of the school work, and have become acquainted with every detail. But they have this drawback ; that the classes in the schools to which they have been accustomed have been small ; and they have therefore had no practice in the management of numbers. On the other hand the pupil teacher who has been trained in a large town school has been accustomed to enormous classes. He can maintain order and secure the attention and interest of large numbers ; but the probability is that he has never in his life taught a class above the third standard. In large town schools, where the staff consists partly of adult assistants and partly of pupil teachers, the members of

the staff are, generally speaking, treated far too much alike. If a head teacher has, say, four assistants and four pupil teachers, the school is not divided amongst the four assistants with a pupil teacher to help each, but assistants and pupil teachers are all regarded as so many units of staff, the higher classes being given to the assistants, and the lower classes to the pupil teachers. Hence the pupil teachers are not fully taught their profession. I constantly hear headmasters and mistresses exclaim, "I can get plenty of assistants to teach lower standards, but I cannot get an assistant for Standard IV." Surely this shows defects in training. Now let me ask any experienced inspector who may now be present, or who may hereafter read this paper, how much evidence he finds of a careful study of method? I think the majority will answer that, while they meet with a good deal of it in a few schools that are under first-rate teachers, they find that in many more the exigencies of the preparation for examinations crush it out; while many teachers, who nevertheless hold certificates, scarcely think of method at all, but jog on from day to day without a single thought as to possible improvement of plan, and with certainly no thought which can deserve the name of study in regard to the art of teaching. Ought it to be possible to find a certificated teacher who never once thought sufficiently about the arrangement of a class-room, to know on which side of the scholars the light ought to be admitted? Or should there be a certificated teacher who does not know how to arrange a group of dual desks? Surely these little matters show that the thoughts of the teachers have not been directed in the right way. I might go on enlarging on this, but I forbear. My contention is, and I think it will be borne out by all those who have much experience, that the minds of many of our teachers have not been sufficiently well directed to the study of professional matters, to lead them to think much, or to think well, on questions of organisation and method; and that those among our best teachers who are in this sense true practical educationists, have only become

so by their own efforts, and by the natural bent of their own minds. It has seldom been due to any special training that they have received.

I think, therefore, that I am safe in drawing the conclusion that our young teachers do require more purely professional training.

I now come to consider what suggestions I can make; and I venture to submit several for consideration.

I think that efforts should be made to get older and better educated candidate pupil teachers. Not only are such candidates better prepared to receive ideas, but there is less danger of suffering from over-pressure during the years of apprenticeship. There are difficulties in the way. Candidates do not apply in sufficient numbers from superior schools; and, if they did, they would generally lack the advantages resulting from a familiarity with public elementary school work. Then, the children of the elementary schools have to go to work between the ages of twelve and fourteen; and if brought back again at fifteen or sixteen they would be less eligible than when they left. We want some means of securing promising candidates at the time when they would otherwise leave school, and continuing their education for two or three years, until they become old enough to enter upon the work of a pupil teacher intelligently. This is not easy to do. A half-time system for a year or two has been suggested; by which the young candidates would be engaged alternately as scholars and as teachers up to the age of fifteen, when a weeding out process would take place. Only the most suitable would be retained; and the remainder, having received a really good plain education, would go off into other walks of life. I believe that this idea has been to some extent experimented upon in Liverpool, but I am not able to say anything as to the results. This part of the question is surrounded with difficulties, and constitutes in itself an important problem. The Education Department cannot raise either the age or the standard. The requirements of rural schools must be borne in mind, and the

mistake of making rules for the whole country which are only partially applicable to large towns must be avoided. The rules of the Department are wide enough to allow of either course being adopted: and local authorities must do the best they can under their several circumstances. We may certainly keep before our minds the importance of securing the best taught candidates we can get.

During the period of apprenticeship, I would require more decided evidence of professional training. I think there should be a few questions on school management at every annual examination, and that these should be graduated. I would not take the teaching of reading one year, arithmetic another, and so on; because such an arrangement would not accord with the organisation of the teaching staff in our schools; besides which the entire range comprised by one subject would be too wide. I would require the pupil teachers to be able, at the end of the first year of apprenticeship, to teach any subject to Standards I. and II. At the end of the second year, they should be able to teach Standard III.; at the end of the third year, Standard IV.; and at the end of the fourth year, they should be able to give a good lesson to any class in the school, on any part of any subject included in the school syllabus. This capability should be tested both by written questions, including notes of lessons, and by lessons given in the presence of the Inspector; and I would hold the head teachers personally responsible for giving this training to their apprentices.

In the Queen's Scholarship examination, I would make it essential that questions should be answered intelligently on methods of organization, and on different methods of teaching various subjects.

At the examination for certificates, I would have questions on the best methods of teaching certain parts of each subject included in every examination paper, and I would make the answering of these questions compulsory.

In awarding the Merit grant, much may be accomplished by inducing the teachers to explain their methods, and by

encouraging independent thought, and originality of idea. A man who thinks enough to be original is more likely to succeed than a mere mechanical copyist; and an Inspector cannot make a greater mistake than by allowing himself to become wedded to one set of ideas, and expecting all the teachers in his district to conform to them. It is too much the case that teachers study the crotchets of the Inspector, and hope to propitiate his favour by presenting him with his own ideal.

Students in Training Colleges I need not say very much about. I quite believe that the authorities of those valuable institutions are generally alive to the wants of those under their care; and I also believe that if any decided change is felt by them to be needed, the Education Department will be ready to pay every attention to any united representation that may be made. I will, therefore, content myself with raising a warning voice against crowding out the study of school organization and method. Do not lower the standard of education if you can help it; but better let that go than send out teachers, who, for lack of technical knowledge, are obliged to work by rule of thumb, and to stumble onward to success over a series of blunders.

The newly established Central Classes for acting teachers require more consideration. The small grants conditionally promised are to be dependent entirely on the degree of certificate, and the years of practical work in school are too apt to be supposed to furnish all the professional training required. What, then, more likely than that the efforts of those in charge of such classes should be directed almost exclusively to preparing these young assistant teachers for their own examinations? Yet, a teacher may have passed through a pupil teachership and have been engaged afterwards for several years as an assistant master or mistress, and may have been practising faulty methods all the time, and may have never imbibed any important principles. I would suggest that attendance at a minimum number of lessons on the Science and Art of Teaching should

be insisted on as the condition of a grant. And, now, just one word about the grant for these assistants.

According to the present code, a sum of £10 or £15 is to be conditionally due at the end of three years. I should like to see an annual grant for this purpose. I would suggest that there should be a grant at the end of each year on account of each student who has attended at least a certain number of meetings of the class, and whose attendances have included a minimum number of lectures on school management. I would also suggest, that this annual grant for attendance should be supplemented by a further grant for a pass in the papers of the first year, and again for a pass in the papers of the second year. This would ensure far better teaching and training; and the principle would be precisely the same as that on which grants are made to schools. There would also be a great advantage to the local authorities receiving these grants, from the fact that something would be received for each year's work, and all would not depend upon the full completion of the three years' term. I know that the objection will be that payments can only be made for results; but there would be results, just as there are in the case of scholars in the schools who only make attendances: A child who increases the average attendance but does not come up for examination helps the grant; and this is considered right because the managers have provided teaching power for his benefit, and he must have gained something by his attendance. So with the student in a central class. These teachers often leave their schools and remove to other towns. Is it right that the local rates of the district in which the first school happens to be situated should bear all the cost? Many of the young women resign to get married before they have been assistants three years. Ought the local rates to bear all the cost in these cases?

I should like also to remark that the amount of the grant promised appears to be inadequate to the end sought to be accomplished. Those teachers who are trained for

three years in large towns will move off in large numbers to become masters and mistresses of schools in smaller towns and in rural districts; while their places will be supplied by other ex-pupil teachers who will follow the same course. This is just what every one would desire. But, although great advantages will result from the better training of these young people even during the period of training, the best of their work will be obtained after the final examination has been passed. Is it quite fair that particular localities should bear such a very large proportion of the cost of this truly national work?

It may appear, at first sight, that I am travelling beyond the limits of my subject; but it must be remembered that the more local authorities are encouraged and assisted in the establishment and maintenance of these central classes, the more general will they become, and the more spirited will be their management; and let us not forget that without such classes, the acting assistant-teachers have no means of training whatever. We have only to look at the immense proportion of the cost of maintaining Training Colleges that is borne by the State to see how utterly insufficient is the grant promised on behalf of acting teachers.

These central classes for acting teachers may develop into a half-time system, or Day Training Colleges, or both combined. At present, we can only urge the importance of the principle.

In the course of these remarks I may have seemed to under-rate good scholarship. If so, I should wish most emphatically to correct the mistake. No one values high personal attainments more than I do; and I am sure that, other things being equal, the teacher who has read most will bring to bear upon his work most intelligence and the clearest judgment. I am only anxious to contend for the necessity for professional education *in addition*; and to lay it down as an axiom that scholarship *alone* is insufficient. Let it be acknowledged that the profession of a Schoolmaster is not one which stands alone in requiring no

special technical knowledge ; but that just as surely as a liberal general education requires to be supplemented by special training in order to produce capable doctors, lawyers, and engineers, so a practical acquaintance with the Science and Art of Teaching is necessary for the Schoolmaster ; and that being acknowledged, let us do our best to train our Teachers as completely as we can.

ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

By Miss S. A. MILLER,

Principal of the Diocesan Training College at Oxford.

A PROFESSED trainer of teachers ought to have something useful to say on such work, and I will endeavour not to disappoint the reasonable expectations of those whom I have the honour of addressing. But all who know and care about training will be prepared to own, with me, that the sum of our knowledge is small enough, looking to the more practical part of the work, and my immediate aim will therefore be the suggesting of such queries as may draw forth the helpful thoughts of others, rather than the putting out of any opinions of my own.

To begin with, are we really agreed upon any definition of Education as a general aim ? and, if so, what is our common standing-ground ? I ask these questions very seriously, because it appears to me that we (in England, at least) do not understand one another as regards even fundamental principles, and that our loss is all the greater in that we take both soundness and agreement for granted —non-existent all the time. If we do agree upon what is true and right, what, I ask, is our common and safe foundation ?

In taking the Training of Teachers for special consideration, our field of inquiry can hardly be said to be narrowed, for it involves continual reference to the

subject of Education, as a whole, while introducing us to the very difficult problem of educating those who have arrived at a late stage in the process, and who, if properly trained so far, have already formed both habits and character.

(I am assuming that such formation may be regarded as a not-unimportant function of educational work, which may possibly be questioned, and with no little reason, looking to practical illustrations of this around us.)

Do we speak quite advisedly, or with real grasp of the meaning of terms used, when we talk of the "Training of Teachers" as a work to be done in the two years spent by a student at College? "Done!" I hope I may anticipate correction here. Not "done" — concluded, rather. Shall we adopt the amendment, and say that the two years at College are but the conclusion of a term of training, the greater, and necessarily the far more important, part of which has gone before? As a matter of fact, progress in study is the one aim of our students, generally — so termed with only too strict propriety — though, to be fair, one may gladly allow the existence of beneficial influences, working in sideways, edgeways, or through such chinks as the monastic or conventual rules of "college" life may leave for their entrance. I appeal to all co-workers to say if the case be not substantially as now stated? It is true that such close application to study—at least innocent in itself—is a safe-guard against influences of a disturbing kind—valuable at that period of life; but this is not quite what one understands by "Training." There is no need, however, either to dwell upon or to exaggerate facts which make against our character for consistency. We have already agreed—have we not?—that the main work, if done at all, must be accomplished at an earlier stage. Not to be tedious, I may probably assume further that the most important part of any real training must, from the nature of the case, be effected not merely in childhood, but in the earlier years of even that stage—during infancy itself.

I cannot disappoint a trustful audience by bidding an abrupt farewell to the subject of adult training, and giving, instead, a treatise on the education of infants; but shall pray you, in kindly acknowledgment of forbearance, to accept and confirm an earnest plea on behalf of such earlier training, as entirely essential to the success of any later educational process, and to bear with me in such reference to it as will be inevitable in any worthy discussion of our subject.

Inevitable, indeed, as will be seen at once. For, though the scope for real personal training is meagre to the point of starvation in the case of students, their instruction in school-management is a recognised part of the course pursued. But for this breathing-hole, the educational atmosphere of a Government Training College would be stifling indeed, and the life unendurable.

There is such a thing as moral sanitation, no less than physical, and as a believer in that, I am glad to have this chance of making thankful acknowledgment of its honoured recognition here.

It is but a "breathing-hole," however, that we have; fresh air, without stint, is what our work requires, and for this I make petition of all who may be in a position to afford it, hopeful of the kindly hearing, of which an earnest is already granted me. I speak in no vague or formal terms in such reference to what may be hoped for from the educational authorities, and have no sympathy with the tone, querulous or defiant, so commonly heard when Codes are in question; my own experience having been of another kind from that of these complainants. If we have grievances, I venture to think that their remedy must be sought for in a different direction, especially at this time, when we are met by unmistakeable evidences of true zeal for the work, and consideration for workers, in the honoured official with whom we have most to do. You all know that this is no mere compliment; but let Mr. Mundella be no less on his guard, as (though measured and cautious enough) it may prove to be fully balanced by

requests calling for arduous exercise of the qualities thus gratefully acknowledged!

As to code-regulations (the inheritance—in bulk—valuable, or otherwise, of all those who administer educational funds, as weighted by these conditions)—may we not regard them, on the whole, rather as boundaries, needful for the fencing out of evils otherwise occurrent, than as directions for actual work undertaken by ourselves?—As one nearly concerned, I confess, however, to a desire to obtain clearer views on this matter—surely not unattainable amongst "educated" people, and, without question, of the highest importance here, if anywhere in common work. Is it assuming too much if I say that full mutual trust is essential to our success as joint workers in education? And why should it not exist throughout? If such a happy state of things be thought Utopian, may we not at least be steadily aiming at its realisation, and so secure our best chance of improved conditions, with corresponding results? As a preliminary enquiry, may we request our rulers to say whether they look to us professionals for substantial accomplishment of the work undertaken, giving us rules as guards and conditions of grants in aid of it,—or consider themselves the actual and responsible educators of the people? The practice of inspection would seem to imply the acceptance of such responsibility, but it does not distinctly involve it. The aim in such process may be to ascertain whether minimum results of certain visible kinds are attained, rather than the thorough testing of work—from a truly educational point of view. The distinction will be seen to be no frivolous one, but of real importance—how great, true educators alone can say. Government "certificates" granted to teachers appear to be a similar acceptance of responsibility by the State, but are capable of like interpretation.

Wherever credit for good work, on the one hand, or blame for faulty work, on the other, may rest, there would seem to be no guarantee for competency which can be relied on by any party concerned. The perpetual

inspection of teachers' work inevitably suggests a curious enquiry as to the meaning of certificates granted—taking even the lower view of competency. I shall be forgiven for thus much reference to the work of Her Majesty's Inspectors —most arduous, yet most thankless—looking to its close connection with my subject, and, hoping for some solution of the difficulty brought forward, through clearer definition of the respective functions of workers, return to our proper subject.

Whether wisely attempted or not, Training is the work that lies before us. And what, first, may we conclude to be implied in this process, as distinguished from Teaching? Is not Teaching the imparting of knowledge, while Training directs the practice of what is known? A distinction easily stated in words, but workers know that there is no comparison between the two processes—looking to either the value of results attained, or to the labour involved. Practically, as applied to work with children, the terms are to a certain extent interchangeable, but in reference to students the distinction between them is somewhat emphasised. Our young educationists, having been well taught at their schools, are now to be "trained" at college. Practical work of some kind is to be the main object. And how may this be stated? Turning to the Syllabus for Students, we have a list of about a dozen subjects for study, amongst which appear "the Principles and Methods of Elementary Education," but we are specially directed also to "Practice" with children in schools attached to the college for the purpose. And great stress is laid on the acquirement of the art of teaching—in the preparation and giving of "Criticism-lessons," apart from ordinary school-routine. The arrangement, planned evidently with great care, would seem at first sight to give us all that could be desired. And the art of teaching—using the word in its more limited sense, is indeed very successfully acquired, the "lessons" being generally good, in regard to both matter and method, and often admirably given.

But the far more difficult and far more important art of

School-management languishes, in spite of rules made and enforced—respecting the practice of that through the daily routine, following upon the study of principles and methods. This may be accounted for, in great part, by the fact that the lecturer on method is not necessarily the director of school-work; and where these important functions are divided, it is clear that the chances are much against unanimity of action, even supposing (which it is hardly wise to suppose, under modern conditions) the happiest unity of feeling between the parties concerned.

Practising-schools, however, do not, as a rule, greatly differ from ordinary ones as to principles and methods of working, and possible awkwardnesses are so far avoided; but this easement of the case has quite another aspect, for it points straight to the really fatal hindrance to effective "practising," and consequently real training also. Our pupils come to us already sated with ordinary school-work, longing only for the opportunity of quiet study, to which they have looked forward all along, and entirely disbelieving in any added "practice"—submitted to only as an inevitable feature of college-training. Doubtless some of them are wise enough to pick up such new ideas as an exceptionally attractive practising-school may offer, but the rule is the swallowing of the pill, as the poor patients, thus dosed, can best bear witness. Those who have artfully sought to sweeten the compound for its more effectual reception may perhaps come next!

Yes, indeed, have they not all had quite enough of school-drudgery; and, what is more to the point, looking to our special enquiry, do they not all know more about it than any of us could teach them?

Thankful for the opportunity of discussion of practical points to follow, I would especially invite it here, when the proper time comes. In dealing with topics of this vital nature, we must all wish, not merely to utter fancies of our own, but to get at real facts. If my picture be thought too dark, I shall be only too glad to be shown the brighter side of things. I speak from comparatively limited experience

of "regular" training, disappointing in its results, as compared with those found possible through private work, unaided.

I used a word just now which ought specially to be objected to by any who understand true work, and believe that we are doing it in our schools, as ordinarily conducted. May I look for its correction from such? Is "true work" consistent with "drudgery"? And yet who will venture to say that drudgery is not a prominent characteristic of modern schooling, of whatever grade? Further, if so grave a charge against school-work as is here implied is to stand, what of the case of "training-colleges"? The fact that we are but following in the wake of the schools (our too true defence, as above) will hardly pass for satisfactory explanation. If these school-plans be wrong—(let their champion appear and do battle for them, if equal to the fray!)—it clearly rests with us to initiate amendment.

For my own part (painfully conscious of the need of that), I only plead for leave to make the attempt, hoping also for such sympathy as those may give me who are not utterly enslaved by routine and precedent.

This incorrigible reference to Children and Schools is indeed unavoidable; for the truth is, as we are now though late discovering, that the word "training" (so far as it implies a real process), is not only more applicable to work with young ones than to that with adults, but belongs in strictness almost wholly to them, as of that "tender age" which is alone capable of receiving impressions of a vivid and durable nature. Upon such propriety, then, I crave to be allowed to stand, not fearing either to mislead or to weary any patient listener.—Patience, however, must not be strained too far. I will but return for a moment to the consideration of Training as compared with Teaching in connection with school-work, and then release you.

Accepting "subjects" as directed by the Code, we find the main stress laid on Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic, as suitable for Elementary Schools, though encouragement is given to the study of Geography, History, etc., Needle-

work also being compulsory in the case of girls. Now subjects, of whatever kind, may be placed under one of two heads, as belonging either to (1) Knowledge, or (2) Skill; in other words, Knowing or Doing. As in the correspondent acts of Teaching and Training, the very wide distinction which exists between these two classes does not, however, appear to be duly recognised in practice. Knowledge, if at all skilfully communicated—and our teachers are generally to be trusted here—may be secured through a single lesson; whereas Skill can result only from steady and continuous practice, carefully directed and fully criticised. An object-lesson well given is a very pretty thing, and such exercises are indeed capable of being utilised to far better purpose than they commonly serve, at present; but, as we have already seen, teaching is neither the difficult thing, nor the one of most importance. Need this be defined as the inducing of right habits, the building up of Character—in one word, Training? And yet, is not such work too often practically given up as hopeless? If so, why is it? The task would not be found even difficult if undertaken in the right way, and if we who so attempted it were supported with true and intelligent sympathy.

As to its feasibility, if Teachers understand their craft, it is remarkable that the true handling of the Elements, to which our attention is so specially directed, coming distinctly under the second head, Skill, implies the very training process so much needed, which may well therefore, on all accounts, be followed up and form the bulk of the work. Such humble virtue as is implied in habits of attention and accuracy may make no great show, but this attained, what besides might we not hope for? Do we at present make even such attainment our real aim? We hear much of hyper-criticism. If it exist, is there not some waste here? Such "precious balm" should surely be frugally used, and applied where most needed—testing results—not so much of teaching in schools, but (to return to our proper subject) of Training in Colleges.

We hear also of pressure, and undoubtedly the thing

exists, *pace* Mr. Mundella. (With a poet's eye, our genial Vice-President sees Schools not as they are but as they ought to be. Let us rather say, with the eye of a true Seer of old, he sees them as they *will* be, when Truth and Nature hold righteous sway!) But in spite of the pressure so bitterly complained of, waste—in other directions besides that just pointed to, enormous waste—of time and power goes on continually, every day, and all day long, in all our schools. In our eager pursuit of knowledge, we regard the treasures—above all price—existing in every child with whom we have to do, as if they were not. Is this well? Can anything but failure result from such neglect of precious gifts? Neither Children nor Education receive anything like their due from us. As to Children, we are misled by that "exterior semblance" of littleness, ignorance, frivolity —what not?—which

> 'doth belie
> The soul's immensity.'

And as to Education, has not some sort of cataract been all these years in course of formation in our mental eye-ball, shutting out what else would be clear to us? What skilful hand will remove this?

It is quite impossible truly to educate the masses under present conditions, but some measure of relief might be pleaded for, in advance of more substantial reform :—

1. As already suggested, let criticism be directed towards "Training Colleges" rather than schools, Her Majesty's Inspectors being suffered to follow their own philanthropic bent as helpers rather than critics of teachers, gladly welcoming their visits in such case.

2. If Colleges can stand their ground, fire-proof, let Practising be duly honoured as the substantial part of such training as may be found possible, care being taken to make this indeed a reality. If such, it would prove recreative to Students in the same proportion, all true methods with children being characterised by life and joyousness.

We have been too long at the hopeless task of beginning at the wrong end. Schools rightly managed would produce teachers in abundance, needing little or no further training of a special kind. Every school should be a training-school. As to the future of "Training Colleges," let us die out quietly, give us decent burial, and we will leave you a rich legacy of Blessing!

DISCUSSION.

Dr. ROTH said he wished to bring forward the desirability of introducing in training schools the science of physical education. That subject had hitherto been perfectly neglected in the majority of training schools as well as in other schools. Teachers were sent out without having any knowledge how to keep their children in a good state of health; and it was now acknowledged that they must have a good physique before they could develop intellectual and moral qualities. Sir James Paget had mentioned in the Hygienic Conference the great importance of training of the physical as well as moral qualities. His (Dr. Roth's) aim was to call attention to the desirability of the teachers of elementary schools obtaining a perfect knowledge of the subject, to enable them to develop the bodies of the children they had to instruct. To do that it would be desirable to follow the example of other Governments. In Sweden the Royal Institution had been established for the last forty years, and teachers were obliged to go through a course of two years' training in the elements of anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and the theory and practice of gymnastics. That system had been imitated by the Prussian Government, and the powers of marching and of endurance, and the success in arms of the Prussian nation were due to the physical training of their children in schools. The Government of Belgium nominated a Commissioner a few years ago, who travelled all over Europe to find out the best system of

training the bodies of children. In England the London School Board began at his (Dr. Roth's) suggestion to train their female teachers in physical exercises, and the results attained during the last five years had induced them to engage a captain in the Swedish Army to teach the science to the male teachers. It was not necessary to have gymnasia in order to develop the various parts of the body and the mind, and no gymnastic apparatus is required for the harmonious development of the body, which can be done by the so-called *free* exercises of the Swedish and German system of gymnastics. Having called attention to the subject of *scientific* physical education, he would leave the Conference to deal with other matters which referred less to the body and more to the mind.

Canon CROMWELL said he had not expected to be called upon to speak, and felt that if he were to enter upon the subject, he should be an advocate taking up one side, and supporting that side as one connected with a training college. It seemed to him that they wanted to elicit that afternoon the opinions of persons who were independent of training colleges, as to whether the training at those colleges was satisfactory or not. With Mr. Mansford's paper he thoroughly sympathised, and coincided with almost every statement it contained; but from Mr. Davis's paper he should certainly be disposed, in many parts, to dissent. He had himself, within the last fortnight, visited Birmingham, Manchester, and Glasgow, and at the first of those towns he had heard of the plan of the day and evening classes, which, in Mr. M'Carthy's opinion, had so far been fairly successful; but, as the experiment was only in its infancy, it was almost too soon as yet to be able to say whether it would be finally successful or not. His own feeling was (of course he was speaking with considerable bias) distinctly favourable to the system of training young persons in training colleges. He felt satisfied that many of the most important results in the formation of character were due to the bringing together of young people under one roof, where they might be influenced partly by each

other, and partly by the teachers with whom they lived. For that reason he should be very sorry indeed to see the time come when training colleges would not be employed for the training of teachers. He should be very sorry to see the day come when they would be, as Miss Miller seemed to think, decently buried and heard of no more. He felt that every one who had seen what the elementary teachers of England had done in the last thirty or forty years would be convinced that they had accomplished a very important national work. If they were to give up the system of training teachers in normal colleges, they would be entering on a path which was entirely new. In some countries, such as Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland, normal colleges were the SOLE means by which teachers were trained. It seemed to him most unfortunate that so many thousands of teachers in England, at the present time, had not been in training colleges.

Mr. WICKETTS said that one solution of the difficulty was to let the Government give the grant to a practising school irrespective of examination; then that practising school could be a training ground, but as it was it was only a sham training-ground. He thought there should be at least three schools connected with every training school, one as a lower class, one as a middle class, and one as a practising school. There were very few training schools in that position, and he believed that Canon Cromwell's college was the only representative where there were three such schools.

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) said that there were four schools attached to his college.

Mr. WICKETTS said that the Chairman's college was one of the happy few.

The Rev. G. O. BATE (Principal of Southlands Training College) said he had been for a number of years closely associated with educational work; he knew the subject under consideration in pretty nearly all its details, and he must express very strong dissent from the gentleman who had just spoken. He thought it would be a very great

misfortune, indeed, if students were trained in another kind of school than that in which they would have afterwards to teach. He understood Mr. Wicketts to argue in favour of a school not conducted on the lines of an ordinary elementary school.

Mr. WICKETTS said he did not.

Mr. BATE said that the college of which he had charge was for training mistresses, and connected with it were practising schools for infants and for girls. At Westminster College there was a model school intended to prepare teachers to go into the country to take charge of schools with boys, girls, and infants in them; they had no such schools at Southlands. The schools in which Southlands students afterwards taught were very largely London Board Schools, and of course the mistresses were chiefly trained for service in girls' or infants' schools. He wished to express his obligation to Mr. Mansford for his very excellent and able paper, and felt himself in agreement with every statement in that paper as far as he knew. He strongly approved of the principle of preparing teachers as pupil-teachers; first of all, for the practical work of teaching; and as he had had for some years much to do with the appointment of teachers after they were trained to actual school work, he might say that School Board and other managers all over the country preferred trained pupil-teachers to those who had not been pupil-teachers. With respect to the training of ex-pupil teachers, there was the great difficulty which Mr. Mansford pointed out, of those persons who were at work all day in schools afterwards finding health, strength, vigour, and freshness enough to apply themselves after school hours to special preparation for their work. In some training colleges special care was paid to the preparation of teachers, and Mr. Davis omitted in his category the preparatory work of lessons given by the students in the training colleges before H.M. Inspector. The giving of such lessons, as they knew to their cost very well, was an important test of qualification for teachers.

Mr. FREDERICK WHITE said that the issue between the two papers was this—were the ex-pupil teachers a benefit to the profession generally without being trained. Mr. Davis's paper tended to show it was necessary, in order to have an efficient staff, that there should be ex-pupil teachers. The question was, could they do without training at all?

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) said that was hardly the question between Mr. Mansford and Mr. Davis. Mr. Davis did not question the benefits from training colleges, but he thought there was an absolute necessity, owing to the force of circumstances, for another means of training such as he sketched out.

Mr. WHITE said he was going to carry his statement a little further. Was the extra benefit they got for the training of students worth the amount of time and of expenditure that was given to it, not only by the students themselves, but by the nation in the form of the education grant? He was very glad to hear the question thrown out about the training of students as teachers in practising schools. There were some colleges that had good practising schools dependent on them, but he remembered that at the time when he was trained it was a perfect misery being sent into the practising school, where he only had monitor's work to do, and never learnt one thing from the time he went into the school till the time he came out of it; nor was he the only one. It had been said that the staff of these schools could not afford to let students experimentalise on their classes, because they must produce certain results to obtain the Government grant. He thought some change should be made in those practising schools, so that the staff and the masters might be able to allow students to experimentalise on methods of instruction, although he did not know what the parents of the children might say if their children were thus experimented upon. Did they find that pupils, after two years' residence in a training college, were so imbued with the methods of that training college, that it could be told whether one was a

Westminster man, a Borough Road man, or a St. Mark's man, simply because he bore certain marks of training? They could tell more often what school the teachers came from, rather than at what college they had been trained. He thought that the training they actually got in methods of instruction was the training they got from the schools they were in when they were pupil-teachers. The training colleges were forced to give up time to practical instruction which ought to be given to the teachers during their five years' apprenticeship. A training college, evidently from its very name, ought to be a college in which the students should be trained to teach, whereas they were colleges in which they were crammed, so as to pass certain examinations, with a very small percentage of time given them to practise a few pet methods of teaching carried on in these colleges.

The CHAIRMAN said he did not dispute Mr. White's description of his own experience.

Mr. WHITE said he hardly thought it was the duty of the Chairman to interfere in that way.

The CHAIRMAN said that no doubt Mr. White's statement was founded on his own experience, but great change had taken place in training colleges in the last few years, and very much more time was now given to the study of the art and science of teaching than was the case fifteen or twenty years ago.

Mr. WHITE said he should be pleased if the few remarks he had to make brought out the facts of the case. The very fact of the Chairman thinking it necessary to interrupt a speech in order to defend the present mode showed that he must think that some defence was needed. With regard to what the Chairman had said about his (Mr. White's) experience, he had only given one bit of it, and that was with regard to what the training did for him. He contended that teachers ought to have more training in teaching at training schools than instruction in other things. In Science and Art it was deemed necessary, in the interests of some of the tutors, that each student should take as many subjects as he possibly could, and that took up a great deal of time

prior to the examinations in December. The preparations for the Science and the Certificate examinations precluded to a great extent the real work of the training college, which was training young students how to work schools.

The CHAIRMAN said he had not meant to question Mr. White's statement as to what formerly existed, but only to say that there was a very great change in those matters. With respect to science and art in many colleges, no part of the income of the teachers was at all dependent upon Government grants.

Mr. G. F. SMITH, Borough Road College, said he thought he could remember the time to which Mr. White alluded, and he could fully corroborate what the Chairman had said with regard to the very great change which had taken place in the training college curriculum as regarded training in the science and art of teaching. It was entirely different from what it was at the time when Mr. White was at a training college. He thought that while training colleges were still giving a considerable amount of attention to the science and art of teaching, yet the greater part of the time of the students was spent in their individual cultivation and at their own studies. The time of their pupil-apprenticeship was the time which they should specially have for their own preparation. The country had to consider whether it was desirable that the whole body of its teachers should be regarded as educated men and women. He did not think it could be said that the pupil teachers when they entered training colleges could be regarded as being educated in any high degree. The entrance scholarship examination to the colleges was very unfortunate, as it threw undue weight upon what might be termed mere memory and crammed subjects. The body of teachers should be regarded by the world at large as, and should in reality be educated men and women, and therefore they were right in allowing a very considerable portion of time to be devoted to their own proper studies. The alternative was that the students should receive their own personal education before they went to the training college, and that

the one or two years in the college should be devoted especially to training for teaching. They had a rather considerable number of youths entering for grammar schools who might be regarded as very fairly educated indeed, but while the students who had been pupil teachers had gone through the two years' curriculum in colleges, many of them now holding the very highest positions in the educational world and the highest academical honours, yet he thought that hardly one of those grammar-school youths had attained a high position as a practical teacher. He must corroborate what Mr. Bates had said as to the necessity for the early training of the pupil teachers; and grammar-school youths did not take kindly to that work at all. He hoped the time had not come when the decent burial of training colleges would take place. He rather hoped they would remain for ever as a living force in the country. While he could not agree with the notion that a training college should be the only system of training, he very much deprecated the term of "untrained" as applied to those who obtained their certificates without passing through a college. He would instance the Birkbeck Schools, which before the Education Act were very valuable and important schools to London, and the whole of their teachers were trained in schools. Occasionally it happened that a very promising youth could not go to college. They had a case a few years ago of a promising young man who did excellently well in college and then broke down through some consumptive tendencies which required that he should go into the country. He retired to the country and went to a small country school, and some years afterwards he passed extremely well. He thought that the requirements of the test applied to the teachers where passed through training colleges should be very much higher than that applied to teachers who had not passed through them.

The Honourable LYULPH STANLEY, M.P., said that the question of training teachers especially for elementary schools was one in which he had taken great interest. It

was perfectly obvious that teachers must be trained, and technical education for that profession was necessary, but whether the system in England was the best was quite another matter. The training for the profession of a teacher nominally ran through six years—four as a pupil teacher and two in a college; but practically they must treat the whole six years as a training for the profession of teacher. Undoubtedly teachers who had been pupil teachers were much valued by head teachers in schools, but many teachers were glad to get pupils coming straight from their apprenticeship rather than out of the college, when they would have to be reformed to the method of the head teachers. It struck him that they wanted to look at the question rather more widely. They wanted pupils to be trained how to teach, but they wanted even more that the pupils should have some knowledge of that which they were going to teach, because any person with a head on his shoulders would gradually develop practical methods; and although an able person who had knowledge might for the first two or three years be behind a person who had had more training, yet if he had more brains and knowledge he would by-and-bye go a-head. The great trouble in training colleges was that young people went to them miserably prepared and very ignorant. That was expressly set out in many reports on training colleges in blue-book after blue-book, but in the last two years he did not think the complaints of inspectors had been quite so frequent. The consequence was that the thing had to be reversed, and the first four years up to eighteen, which should be years of study, were made years of training, whilst the two years of what were called training were turned into years of study. He thought that the general testimony was that the use of the practising school was very small. He rather agreed with Miss Miller's view on that case. There were some cases in which, perhaps, the practising school was very useful, but the impression he got from communication with teachers was that, as a rule, the time spent in the practising school was small in amount and of very little profit

As to what should be the method of training teachers, that must be a very important thing. They spent a very large sum of money upon it—some £100,000 a year—and the question was whether the money was spent in the best possible way. He thought a very serious question with reference to the training of teachers was whether it might not be more desirable that instead of getting exclusive education among themselves, the advantages of the Scotch universities' system should be utilised to give their teachers a wider idea of what was meant by education. The fact was the elementary teacher never got outside the routine of elementary teaching. He began his life as a child in an elementary school, then he became a pupil teacher, then he went to a training college where he was in daily contact with people entirely preparing for teaching in elementary schools, and then he entered an elementary school again. He thought it was not desirable that that horizontal stratification of teachers and classes should be continued, but he would be better pleased if they should be able by bursaries or scholarships at universities, to get variety for their teachers—not to substitute a university career for the training college entirely, but to have training schools coupled with the teaching at the university. The great value of the training college was that it gave two years' repose and study. The strain of labour upon the young man or young woman of nineteen or twenty as an ex-pupil teacher working all day and studying at night was most undesirable. He saw great value in classes for ex-pupil teachers, but he thought that the School Boards ought to consider very carefully whether they could not organise the instruction of ex-pupil teachers and make them to a large extent half-timers. In the large schools in large towns, such as Birmingham, there were great opportunities for teachers to see the best methods. A large school was the best training college for teachers, as the workshop was the best training for a mechanic in the use of his tools. They might have night classes, but they should not overwork ex-pupil teachers in a class at night after they had been

teaching all day. All that meant more money. The great difficulty was that they were pent up by the grudging manner in which money was dealt out. If they were to have a proper system of education they must be prepared to spend a larger sum of money than they did at present. He thought Canon Cromwell expressed very properly great regret at the loss of the third year, which used to be allowed to deserving students. Many training colleges suffered extremely from want of funds; they had a great difficulty in getting subscriptions; the subscriptions were a very small part of the whole income of training colleges; they were obliged to cut down salaries, and could not get the staff they wished to have because of their limited means. The salaries which twenty-five years ago would command efficient teachers and lecturers would not command them now. The competition of large schools had put up salaries, and training colleges had found themselves with their old restricted incomes, and they could not afford either in their premises, their apparatus, or their staff, to have what their managers would wish to have to keep them up to the requirements of the present day. If they only looked at the neighbouring exhibitions, and saw the number of buildings that were put up in continental places such as France and Belgium for the training of teachers, and contrasted them with the buildings and apparatus for the use of students in English training colleges, they would see how miserably served the latter colleges were. He did not wish to see training colleges extinguished, and he valued the two years of study, but thought we ought to have great freedom for persons coming from outside, who would bring a rather wider cultivation and more generous ideas of what education meant. He was sure they would raise the profession and raise teaching also.

Mr. JAMES BAILEY questioned whether it was not the fact that a large proportion of young men who got the opportunities of university study, lost sympathy with the so-called "drudgery" and severe work of day-school requirements, and went off into other lines. A very large proportion of them, in

Scotland particularly, use the day-school teaching, for perhaps two or three years, as a stepping-stone merely to the ministry; so that many teachers who began with the purpose of becoming day-school teachers, by the very process through which they passed acquired other sympathies and lost sympathy with the particular work for which they set out, and were therefore lost to the profession. He had no doubt whatever but that the same thing would be felt to a very large degree in England. Another thing was, that supposing these young men did remain as teachers when they got into school work, they would not remain at it in the close sympathy that the necessities of their daily duties required. There was no doubt a narrowness which was perpetuated and strengthened by their present work. Mr. Mansford in his paper had made reference to an exceedingly valuable feature of the pupil-teacher system, viz., that it secured coherence and *continuity*, and in many cases a high tone to the teaching in the several parts of smaller schools, through the personal influence and the teaching power of the principal teacher being brought to bear more directly and continuously upon the scholars. A great deal had been said about the unfitness of the present professional part of the work in training colleges, for school management as distinct from the art of school teaching. A new class of school altogether had been developed in large towns in modern times by the action of the School Boards. There was no doubt whatever that the tendency in large School Boards was to erect a commodious building on the separate class-room system, so that a master or a mistress had practical charge of what was in itself a little school, distinct from all the others, and in each class room to a greater or less extent the whole work of a school was carried on. There was a disadvantage connected with that which he believed would come to the front with very great force indeed, and it was that it shut up the separate classes of the schools from the personal influence of the principal teacher. In the training college arrangements few if any schools of that kind

existed. The clerk of one of the Cornish School Boards said to him not long ago, that he had received applications from successful masters under the London School Board, and when he put them in charge of a school they turned out absolute failures; he said they were excellent class teachers, but had nothing like general power or skill in organisation, and nothing like that diffusion of personal influence through the subordinate teachers, which was absolutely necessary. He believed it was better to give teachers a general acquaintance with the principles of organisation and of management of various classes in schools than to train them up for a particular kind of work. There were three things which Mr. Mansford's paper put before them as the great objects to be aimed at in respect to the training of teachers. The first was the acquisition of knowledge. He had no doubt several gentlemen there would bear him out in the statement that the great purpose and effort of all arrangements of the training colleges of the earlier days went, not to turn out good scholars—he meant, not so much to give instruction, as it was to impart skill, knowledge, and that enthusiasm of the general character, which went to make them thoroughly good teachers. Now a different state of things prevailed, and he was glad to find, both from the discussion to day and from what was going on on all sides around them, that the evil of the more modern system was beginning to be found out, and it was becoming recognised that their teachers required more professional training, and a better knowledge of the principles and methods involved in the science and art of education. That was the second thing which the training colleges gave. The third thing, apart from the inculcation of instruction, and giving knowledge of the art of teaching, was that most important matter to which Mr. Davis had referred, a thing, however, which the class teaching that he advocated would never give—that was the development of character. It was most true that it was a much more valuable thing to have a good man or a good woman, a person of high moral character, with a love of teaching, at

the head of a school than to have one gifted with merely intellectual acquirements and disciplinary skill. And Mr. Mansford had shown how well adapted are the carefully considered arrangements of the training college to help in securing this important end.

Miss MILLER thanked the audience for the very patient attention which had been given to her paper. She did not wish to add to it, but would leave it for thoughtful persons to think over, and in some form to take action upon it. She would reckon largely upon the sympathy, which she believed would follow her in her work, from the audience, in the direction especially of real training and the formation of character, which she thought was not hopeless. She thought that they might make a little more persistent effort, especially in the early stages. The condition of students or Queen's scholars, when they first entered the colleges, pointed to defects here; but if they had a good typical practising school, much might be done through witnessing such true work.

Mr. G. B. DAVIS said he was afraid, from one or two things which had dropped, that it might appear that he and Mr. Mansford were rather on opposite sides and were prepared to enter upon an argument as to the best means of training teachers, but he disclaimed any such position. It was not a question, so far as he was concerned, whether it was better to train teachers in colleges or out of college. He did not wish for the death of the training colleges, but would rather let them rest in peace. He might perhaps say with Mr. Lyulph Stanley, that it would be better to let students get their personal education first, and not to have the training first and the personal instruction afterwards. He believed that for a pupil-teacher to go to a training-college for two years was perhaps the best plan, or, at all events, a plan from which he was likely to benefit very much indeed. They had at Birmingham—and what was true of Birmingham was true of other large towns—large schools for a thousand pupils. They must have more teachers, and that was a question of money. They could not afford

to have for all the classes teachers who had been trained in training colleges, but they wanted something better than mere apprentices. If they could not get any one so good as a completely trained teacher, they must get someone in between, and they therefore kept their own pupil-teachers. They gave them salaries which enabled them to live at home during the period intervening between their being pupil-teachers and getting the final certificate, and they also gave them assistance as far as they could by means of central classes. With regard to their own work, the students were very likely to suffer from having to study and attend classes at night. No doubt under those circumstances they must take a longer period of time to work up: perhaps three instead of two years, or possibly four instead of two; but if they had not those central classes they would get no training at all. He thought they had a very fair claim upon the Government for more liberal grants than the small sums which were promised of £10 or £15, provided the student had remained for three years in one place, and provided he had gained a good position in the second year's papers at the Government examination. He had been placed in an awkward position when he entered the room, because he had a paper which would have taken him thirty-five minutes to read; and as he had been told that twenty minutes was the time allowed, he had had to cut out about two-fifths of his paper. If he had succeeded in showing he was not in antagonism with training-colleges, but only wanted to promote the efficiency of the training of ex-pupil-teachers, he would have succeeded in his purpose.

Mr. MANSFORD thought it was evident they had not got the best possible system, but it was good enough if they could say they were doing the best they could under the circumstances. Whilst it was a good thing to teach persons how to teach, it was also a good thing to give them something to teach. It was necessary, in fact, that teachers should know the subjects they had to teach, but it was admitted on all hands that when the teachers went up

for training they did not know them; and therefore, during the period of training, they should be taught. It was said that if there were a model school they would come up better trained; but what would become of a model school under the present system of Government grants? Who was to support it? He would leave it for the present supporters of their system to answer. He did not think it was so much to be regretted that a good deal of time had to be spent on learning those subjects, but it should be borne in mind that when a student learnt a subject under the direction of a good teacher, he got a more complete view of it and in a more systematic form, and was much better able to teach it than he otherwise would be. If he were under a good and enthusiastic teacher for two or three years, he would learn how to put his subjects logically, and by those means he would be taught how to teach, while at the same time he was learning. Therefore it should not be concluded that time spent in learning a subject was thrown away, as far as the art of teaching was concerned. In the training-college and in the practising-schools very much more attention was now given to the cultivation of the art of teaching. The master of method was generally the director of those schools; he did not use to be, but he was now. He had control of the arrangements; he saw the student in his class; he examined him in his lesson; he watched him while he was teaching; he made criticisms, and gave him an opportunity of taking notes of other persons' lessons, and the student was conducted through a course of teaching in the school. He thought the Government should pay them a little better. They very soon reached the limit of £50, which the parsimonious Government allowed them; and if they exceeded it and went to £51, the additional pound was not contributed. The Government ought to help them more freely in the practising-schools, and then he was sure more could be done than was the case at present. He was much obliged to the gentlemen who had spoken in reference to his paper, and for the kindness with which it had been received.

SOME DIFFERENCES THAT EXIST BETWEEN THE TRAINING, DUTIES, AND POSITION OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND ON THE CONTINENT.

By the Rev. Canon CROMWELL.

IT may be convenient, for the clear consideration of the subject of this paper, to spend a few preliminary moments in expressing what we deem to be the aim and scope of elementary education; for if we are not agreed upon this point we can scarcely hope to avoid misunderstanding each other, when we come to consider what training is required for the teacher of an elementary school.

We shall readily assent to the proposition that elementary education should be sound and thorough as far as it purposes to go.

Its primary aim should be to *draw out*, to develop, and to strengthen all inborn powers and faculties. Hence education from the first must have prime regard to the moral and spiritual, as well as to the intellectual and physical nature of the scholar.

To impart useful information and to teach useful arts must not be deemed to be the teacher's only duties. He has greater and higher functions than these alone to perform. It is his privilege, as well as his duty, to cultivate with all reverence and kindness the moral and spiritual nature of those entrusted to his charge and keeping; to encourage and praise all that is noble, pure, upright, truthful and of good report; and to discourage and blame all that is base, foul, mean and of evil repute among men. This will form an important part of the instruction that he will give them respecting their duty towards God, and their duty towards man.

At the same time he will make it his business to study carefully the mental capacities and powers of children, and graduate his instruction according to their ability to receive and to digest it. Their powers of observation, their intuitive ideas about number, space, time, &c., their reasoning capacity—all these faculties demand from the skilful teacher close attention and careful effort to help them to develop into their full strength and vigour. For this reason it is important that instruction be given in such a manner as to exercise to the utmost the natural capacities of the learner, always leading him to do as much as possible by his own effort and by his own diligence.

These objects have ever been kept in view by the ablest teachers and pioneers in education. All such teachers have recognized the vast importance of directing close attention to the natural order of the development of the mental and moral powers. In the earliest stages of a child's education we appeal to his senses mainly; then to his imagination, his curiosity, his memory and his reason. It is far more important to form character, and to instil logical modes of thinking than to impart information, however essential this may be.

Nowhere have these leading principles in education been more fully acknowledged and acted upon than in the best schools of Prussia, Saxony and Switzerland; as well as in the schools and colleges established in France, Belgium and America by the Christian Brothers. As a sample of the care and time bestowed upon the training of teachers upon the Continent, let me state very briefly what I happen to have personally seen and learnt about the way in which Saxon teachers are prepared for work in elementary schools. I may say in passing that my illustrations will be taken from one of the best Normal Colleges in Dresden, which I visited two years ago.

At the age of fourteen, students are admitted into the College, where they remain for six years. At the end of each year an examination is held. If a student fails to reach a satisfactory standard, he is liable to be put back for

a year; which is a severe penalty both on the young man and his parents. The time-table (of which a copy will be found in the Appendix, page 68) shows what are the subjects of study in each year of training, and how much time is devoted to each.

It will be noted that the course of instruction throughout the six years is carefully graduated, and the subjects of study are not so numerous as to preclude a reasonable expectation, that each of them may be grasped with tenacity enough to prevent them escaping from the mind almost as quickly as they are learned.

All through the six years' course, much time and care are bestowed upon music—vocal and instrumental—upon Latin —upon mathematics—upon natural science and upon the language and literature of Germany. Systematic instruction is also, of course, given in the science and art of teaching; and inasmuch as the classes are not large (never exceeding 25) there is opportunity for much personal intercourse between tutor and student, to the manifest advantage and pleasure of both. In the course of six years it is quite possible to travel over the whole ground of instruction without undue haste, and without that constant strain upon the attention which is so very trying to most minds, and especially to those that have not been trained from early years to daily application and close study.

When we turn our eyes from the Saxon to the British curriculum prescribed for elementary teachers, we are struck by the disadvantages under which our young fellow-countrymen labour. It is surprising that so many of them succeed as well as they do in acquiring knowledge and in learning how to impart it. During their apprenticeship as pupil-teachers, it is true that not a few of them derive invaluable help and encouragement from their masters; but it is equally true that many masters either cannot or will not give due instruction to their pupil-teachers. Hence it comes to pass that candidates enter the training colleges in England very unequally prepared for the short course of two years, which is all that the Government of this rich country now provides for its elementary teachers.

In the college of which I have the honour to be Principal, it was formerly the rule to select a certain limited number of the most promising and able students for a third year's course of study. But the Revised Code of 1862 abolished the grant for this supplementary year's training, with the same remorseless and unwise parsimony with which it abolished grants to special lecturers in science and literature.

From the poverty and barrenness of the curriculum then introduced, the English Training Colleges have only recovered partially, and the alterations of late years introduced by the pressure of circumstances, rather than by the deliberate conviction of our rulers, have not always been made to harmonise very successfully with the other parts of a rather complicated machinery.

In Mr. Matthew Arnold's preface to 'Schools and Universities of the Continent' he has incidentally given a clue to the explanation of this and of some other mistakes in our British system of educational policy. He says, "On the Continent, through boards and councils, the best educational opinion of the country . . . necessarily reaches the Government and influences its action. In this country (England) there are no organised means for its ever reaching the Government at all. . . . Our system of examination, our regulations of studies, our whole school legislation are at the present moment settled, one hardly knows how, certainly without any care for the best counsel attainable being first taken on them."

If the opinion of those most familiar with the subject could be taken—I do not mean men familiar with the subject as it appears upon paper and in the pages of Reports in Blue Books—but of men who have spent years in close and daily contact with the actual work of teaching, not merely as on-lookers but as doers of the work of education, if (I say) the opinion of such men were taken, I feel pretty confident that very considerable improvements in our training system might be made; and foremost among them would be the restoration of a third year's course of training for those students who evince exceptional power

and promise. In this third year it would be possible to carry into effect at least one of the recommendations contained in the recent Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, who desire that "arrangements may be made for giving to selected students in Training Colleges greater facilities and inducements for the study of Art and Science."

From an anxious desire to satisfy the demands made upon them, it is quite possible that some of the Training Colleges may have attempted more subjects than they could successfully grapple with during the very short time at their disposal. They have thus laid themselves open to censure from another quarter, and have been rather severely handled by Mr. Herbert Spencer, who declares that "the severe examinations, joined with the short period assigned for preparation, are proof, if not of cruelty, then of woful ignorance." * Mr. Spencer must, of course, be excused for not being aware that the Training Colleges are not responsible either for the severity of the examinations or for the short time assigned for preparation for them. If he had known by what authority these things are done he would, no doubt, have pointed the shaft of his sarcasm at a certain great Department of the State rather than at a certain Training College. As an example of the want of even ordinary attention to organisation, I may be permitted to mention this one fact. In the month of June, 1883, the Committee of Council on Education issued a circular authorising elementary schools to receive payment for instruction given in "Hygiene;" a most useful, if not absolutely necessary subject to be taught in all schools; and yet up to this moment, in spite of urgent application for the addition of "Hygiene" to the list of subjects permitted to be taught in Training Colleges, no action has been taken by the Department, so far as I have been able to ascertain.

Few things could be more inconsistent or heedless than to admit a new subject into the curriculum of elementary schools, and yet to omit to make any provision at all for

* 'Education,' by Herbert Spencer, p. 161. The passage in full is printed in Appendix B. p. 70.

giving instruction upon that subject in the colleges, where the teachers of those elementary schools receive the main part of their education.

Passing from this hasty glance at the training of teachers, let me ask your attention for a few minutes to a consideration of the duties required from elementary teachers at home and abroad.

It must be obvious to all, that the examiners of schools do in reality determine the direction which instruction in those schools shall take. This remark is true of all kinds of schools; and to none is it more applicable than to schools of the elementary class.

If the examiners be instructed to pursue, or think they are instructed to pursue, a dry mechanical style of examination, we may be quite sure that this must have a deadening effect upon the line of instruction given in those schools, unless there be present in them some exceptionally powerful counteracting influence. It is beyond dispute that the style of examining elementary schools, that has been followed in England since 1862, is totally different from that pursued in any other country in the world. In Prussia, Saxony, and in other States, where elementary education has received the most careful attention, inspectors and teachers are not bound by any such cast-iron rules as those that hamper elementary education in this country. On the Continent, inspectors are not required to expend the short and important hours of an examination day in filling up elaborately constructed schedules, with the object of reporting to "My Lords" how each tiny scholar can read or spell. And in arithmetic, instead of merely marking which children get right or wrong answers, they have time to look at the "methods" and "processes" employed in working arithmetical problems. The English system of inspection has tended to magnify unduly the importance of "results," and in an equal degree to depreciate the immense value that ought to be attached from an educational point of view to the "methods" employed in teaching every subject in an elementary school, where the object constantly in view

should be not merely to impart instruction, but to train and draw out the mental faculties.

In Prussia, we are told on good authority that instruction in arithmetic is ordered to be given in such a manner as to exercise the scholar's mind "in logical thought and precise expression . . . Mere mechanical calculation is strictly to be avoided. Children must always gain insight into the reasons of the processes." And in Saxony we learn that "all arithmetic in the elementary schools is to be a training in thinking."

It would be pleasant to find in our English code more sentiments of a similar character. It is true that Her Majesty's Inspectors are instructed, in awarding the so-called "Merit Grant," to have a regard to the "processes" by which answers are obtained. Yet we are told in another part (28 Art.) of their Instructions, that "right method, may excuse slight error in one of the answers;" so that "right method," is after all but very lightly esteemed in the educational scales by which the amounts of the Grants are weighed. Teachers are perfectly well aware of this; and it is not possible for all of them to resist the temptation to secure the Grant by the adoption of such means as experience has proved to be most successful, although those means may not always be such as would otherwise be adopted. The fact is, that our British mode of examining elementary schools, and paying them for certain results (not always the best), has the undoubted effect of rendering the instruction given in those schools more "mechanical" and less "educative" (if I may be excused for using the word), than we find in similar schools on the Continent. Upon this issue I particularly invite the opinion of competent judges at this Conference: for if the opinion given above be correct, then it is evident that changes ought at once to be made in our present system; for any system that has the effect (whether intentional or not) of rendering instruction "*mechanical*," must be condemned by all true friends of Education.

In support of my contention that the British system of

examination and payment has a tendency to favour merely "mechanical" results, I am able to cite the authority of one who has himself been both an inspector and a schoolmaster, Bishop Temple. In the course of the debate in the House of Lords on June 27, 1884,* he pointed out that our plan of payment for results was in reality "payment by piece-work"; and the tendency "of piece-work was," he said, "to sacrifice the man to the work." ... "His mind was made mechanical; in the long run he became unfit for his work; that was the objection to the mode of payment by results." At the same time, Bishop Temple animadverted upon another serious blot in our English code—the rigidity of the standards. "If he were" (he said) "a schoolmaster, he should be perpetually fretting against the rules by which the promotion of boys from standard to standard was regulated. He maintained that the master ought to have the organisation of the school, and the promotion of the boys, entirely in his own hands."

This evidence is all the more valuable, because the Bishop still inclines to maintain the system which was inaugurated when he was one of the trusted advisers of the Education Department.

Fortunately for my argument, the Bishop has given us his reasons for clinging to a system which he admits is not free from very grave defects. He repeats the well-worn statement, that before the Revised Code was framed, the younger scholars were neglected. Let us examine this complaint, and assume for a moment that it was well-founded; which, however, I shall dispute. Surely the inspectors, as well as the teachers, could have been required by the Education Department to perform their duties better in the future than they are said to have done in the past. For the sake of curing this single defect, surely it was not wise to set up a new-fangled system, which had little to recommend it from the first, and which is considered by many to have lowered very considerably the whole tone of elementary education in this country.

* See 'Times' Report, June 28.

But I dispute the accuracy of the statement that the younger children were generally neglected before the present system of payment was introduced. In the pages of the Report of the Newcastle Commission there is ample evidence to the contrary. This evidence was summarized and sifted very carefully in an article published in the January (1862) number of the 'Quarterly Review.'*

If I have not already exceeded the limits allowed for the reading of this paper, I would desire to point to two other particulars in which the British teacher of our elementary schools stands at a disadvantage when compared with his continental brother. His certificate, or diploma for teaching, is laid open, for several years, to modification by the hands of judges—not always the most experienced or competent. In this way an inspector of raw experience or hasty temper may, by a single entry upon the certificate of an able and conscientious teacher, blight the fruits of many years' labour. A teacher's certificate once given ought not to be open to revision or modification, except by the very highest authority in the Education Department.

Another particular to which I desire to advert is the different way in which a British and Continental teacher can look to the time when age or infirmity may render him incapable of vigorously fulfilling the duties of his office. The foreigner is able with confidence to rely upon the State, which he has served, for an adequate pension, but the British teacher is often haunted by the dread that he may be driven at the last either into the ranks of the pauper, or into the condition of a suppliant for aid from one or other of the benevolent societies.

If poor countries, like Switzerland and Saxony, are able and willing to provide pensions for teachers who give their lives to the cause of popular education, it surely is not creditable to the Legislature of opulent England to do so little for those who are doing their best for her children.

* See Appendix C, page 71.

APPENDIX A.—TABLE OF STUDIES OF THE FREIHERRLICH VON FLETCHERSCHE SCHOOL IN DRESDEN.—EASTER 1882.

TIME.		CLASS I.	CLASS II.	CLASS III.	CLASS IV.	CLASS V.	CLASS VI.
Monday.	7	Geometry.	Organ, Section *c.*	Religion.	German.	Natural Science.	Latin.
	8	Religion.	Geometry.	Organ, Section *b.*	Religion.	Latin.	Music Teaching.
	9	Pedagogy.	Practice of Method.	Theory.	Latin.	Geography.	Piano, Section *a.*
	10	Viva Voce Practice.	Pedagogy.	Geography.	Theory of Music.	Piano, Section *a.*	Natural Science.
	11	Natural Science.	Singing, Section *a.*	German.	Geography.	Study hour.	Gymnastics.
	12	Choral Singing.					
	2	Drawing.	Teaching Practice.	Free.	Free. Piano, Section *c.*	Writing.	German.
	3	Study hour.	Gymnastics.	Writing.	Piano, Section *b.*	Geometry.	Latin.
	4	Gymnastics.	Organ, Section *a.*	Study hour.	History.	Arithmetic.	History.
	5	Piano (Examination).		Study hour.	Shorthand.	Violin, Section *b.*	Geography.
Tuesday.	7	Theory of Music.	Natural Science.	Religion.	German.	Religion.	Religion.
	8	Teaching Practice.	Theory of Music.	Latin.	Religion.	Drawing.	Latin.
	9	German.	Religion.	Organ, Section *a.*	Latin.	History.	Arithmetic.
	10	Pedagogy.	German.	Natural Science.	Drawing.	Latin.	Writing.
	11	Religion.	Geography.	Gymnastics.	Natural Science.	Violin, Section *c.*	Study hour.
	12	History.	Study hour.	Drawing.	Writing.	Gymnastics.	Violin, Section *a.*
	2	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free. Violin, Section *a.*	Free.
	3	Study hour.	Teaching Practice.	Latin.	Book-keeping.	Study hour.	Piano, Section *b.*
	4	Study hour.	History.	Pedagogy.	Study hour.	Piano, Section *b.*	Gymnastics.
	5	Study hour.	Study hour.	Arithmetic.	Gymnastics.	Study hour.	Study hour.
Wednesday.	7	Natural Science.	Church History.	German.	Violin, Section *b.*	Religion.	Religion.
	8	Pedagogy.	Arithmetic.	Shorthand.	Natural Science.	Latin.	Piano, Section *c.*
	9	Teaching Practice.	Drawing.	History.	Geometry.	Natural Science.	Singing.
	10	Latin.	Singing, Section *b.*	Gymnastics.	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	Latin.
	11	Singing, Section *a.*	German.	Pedagogy.	Gymnastics.	Shorthand.	German.
	12	Singing, Section *b.*	Latin.	Geometry.	Study hour.	Gymnastics.	Geometry.
	2	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.
	3	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.

Thursday.	10	Organ, Section *a*.	Pedagogy.	Geography.	Singing.	Geometry.	Latin.
	11	Geography.	Gymnastics.	Drawing.	Organ, Section *a*. Violin, Section *d*.	German.	Violin, Section *b*.
	12	Choral Singing.		Piano, Section *c*.	Choral Singing.	Violin, Section *d*.	Choral Singing.
	2	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Drawing.	Free.
	3	Study hour.	Teaching Practice.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Latin.
	4	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	German.	Arithmetic.
	5	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Study hour.	Geometry.
Friday.	7	Organ, Section *c*.	Natural Science.	Religion.	Latin.	Religion.	Religion.
	8	Drawing.	Religion.	German.	Religion.	Theory of Music.	Natural Science.
	9	Religion.	Teaching Practice.	Latin.	Organ, Section *b*.	German.	Drawing.
	10	Teaching Practice.	Organ, Section *b*.	Natural Science.	Drawing.	Latin.	German.
	11	Conference.					
	12	Study hour.	Pedagogy.	Organ Section *c*.	Study hour.	Shorthand.	Gymnastics.
	2	Teaching Practice.	Violin (Examination).		Latin.	Writing.	Free.
	3	History.	Study hour.	Singing.	Geometry.	Violin, Section *e*.	History.
	4	German.	Geometry.	Natural Science.	Gymnastics.	Geography.	Violin, Section *c*.
	5	Study hour.	Latin.	Gymnastics.	Arithmetic.	Study hour.	Violin, Section *d*.
Saturday.	7	Organ, Section *b*.	Church History.	History.	German.	History.	Piano, Section *e*.
	8	German.	Teaching Practice.	Pedagogy.	Organ, Section *c*. Violin, Section *a*.	Latin.	Latin.
	9	Latin.	Practice of Method.	Latin.	Piano, Section *a*. Violin, Section *c*.	German.	Geography.
	10	Arithmetic.	German.	Piano, Section *b*.	Latin.	Piano, Section *c*.	Writing.
	11	Gymnastics.	Arithmetic.	Piano, Section *a*.	Geography.	Piano, Section *d*.	Violin, Section *e*.
	12	Study hour.	Geography.	Geometry.	Study hour.	Gymnastics.	Study hour.
	2						
	3	Half Holiday.					
	4						
	5	Study hour.					

APPENDIX B.

Education in Training Colleges.

We recently went over a training college for young men, one of those instituted of late years for the purpose of supplying schools with well-disciplined teachers. Here, under official supervision, where something better than the judgment of private schoolmistresses might have been looked for, we found the daily routine to be as follows :—

At 6 o'clock the students are called;
7 to 8, studies;
8 to 9, Scripture-reading, prayers, and breakfast;
9 to 12, studies;
12 to 1¼, leisure, nominally devoted to walking or other exercise, but often spent in study;
1¼ to 2, dinner, the meal commonly occupying 20 minutes;
2 to 5, studies;
5 to 6, tea and relaxation;
6 to 8½, studies;
8½ to 9½, private studies in preparing lessons for next day;
10, to bed.

Thus, out of the twenty-four hours, eight are devoted to sleep; four and a quarter are occupied in dressing, prayers, meals, and the brief periods of rest accompanying them; ten and a-half are given to study; and one and a-quarter to exercise, which is optional and often avoided. Not only, however, are the ten-and-a-half hours of recognised study frequently increased to eleven-and-a-half by devoting to books the time set apart for exercise, but some of the students get up at four o'clock in the morning to prepare their lessons; and are actually encouraged by their teachers to do this! The course to be passed through in a given time is so extensive; and the teachers, whose credit is at stake in getting their pupils well through the examinations, are so urgent, that pupils are not uncommonly induced to spend twelve and thirteen hours a day in mental labour!

It needs no prophet to see that the bodily injury inflicted must be great. As we were told by one of the inmates, those who arrive with fresh complexions quickly become blanched. Illness is frequent; there are always some on the sick-list. Failure of appetite and indigestion are very common. Diarrhœa is a pre-

valent disorder, not uncommonly a-third of the whole number of students suffering under it at the same time. Headache is generally complained of; and by some is borne almost daily for months; while a certain percentage break down entirely and go away.

That this should be the regimen of what is in some sort a model institution, established and superintended by the embodied enlightenment of the age, is a startling fact.

That the severe examinations, joined with the short period assigned for preparation, should compel recourse to a system which inevitably undermines the health of all who pass through it, is proof, if not of cruelty, then of woful ignorance.

[I feel bound to say that Mr. Spencer's picture does not accurately represent any training college with which I am acquainted.—J. G. C.]

APPENDIX C.

With respect to the statement that the younger scholars were neglected before the days of the Revised Code, the only *vivâ voce* evidence on that subject given before the Newcastle Commissioners was that of Mr. Cook, Mr. Watkins, and Mr. Lingen.

Mr. Cook says: "All the inspectors try the ciphering very closely, and all the inspectors try the writing very closely. I do not know that the inspectors consider themselves bound (I should not say they were bound) to hear every child read, but that they read well in every class." (Evidence, 864.)

Mr. Watkins says: "We hear them all read, or the great majority of them, we see all their sums, we look at all their copybooks, and question very often the whole of the scholars, almost every child." (Evidence, 1042.)

Mr. Lingen says: "I think that the inspectors are one and all alive to the necessity of looking to the lower forms. In their printed reports I think you will find that they constantly dwell upon that fact, namely, that a school is not to be measured by its higher forms only. The tendency, I imagine, in going into a school would always be to judge very much of its capabilities by its higher forms; but there certainly is not room to say that the inspectors are not fully alive to the necessity of looking to the lower forms." (Evidence, 428.)

In support of the same view the following extracts are taken from the Reports of the Inspectors, published in the Blue Book for 1857–8:—

"There is good reason, as was the case last year, to be satisfied with the progress of school children in the subjects of their instruction, and especially in the elementary and more important subjects." (Mr. Watkins's Report, p. 40.)

"I think I see a decided tendency now going on to stick to what may be called necessary subjects. By necessary subjects, I mean reading, writing, spelling, religious knowledge, and arithmetic, and, in girls' schools, needlework." (Mr. Kennedy's Report, p. 96.)

"The Parliamentary grant has placed within reach of the working population a sound, although a plain education for their children. I do not refer to the extent and variety of their studies, but to their knowledge of a few elementary subjects." (Mr. Stewart's Report, p. 121.)

"The three indispensable elements of education—reading, writing, and arithmetic—evidently receive, as they ought to do, the largest share of attention, and are most successfully inculcated." (Mr. Bowstead's Report, p. 162.)

The result of the year's Report was, that *reading* was taught excellently well, or fairly in 89 per cent., moderately in less than 11 per cent. of inspected schools; that *writing* was taught excellently well, or fairly in 91 per cent., moderately in 9 per cent.; and that *arithmetic* was taught excellently well or fairly in 83½ per cent., moderately in 15 per cent., and badly in 1½ per cent., of the same schools. It must be recollected that out of every 100 schools inspected, some 20 were not under certificated teachers, and that these schools were almost invariably the worst.

On turning to the latest Report of the Committee of Council on Education (for 1883) we find the following "results," which deserve to be compared with those given above for the year 1858.

The number of scholars who passed :—

In reading	was	89·22	per cent.
In writing	,,	81·92	,,
In arithmetic	,,	77·27	,,

When the results of these two years are compared it is found that no improvement has been made in reading; while in writing

and arithmetic the percentages have moved backwards in the last 25 years. Plausible explanations for this state of affairs may possibly be attempted by the optimist advocates of the present system of inspection and payment.

In reply to the Rev. G. O. Bate, Canon CROMWELL said he believed that the Government of Saxony spent in proportion a larger sum of money in training teachers than the Government of England. The students paid about £10 a year, and the rest was provided by the Government of the country. The teaching in the Practising Schools was very carefully supervised, the whole time being constantly watched by the normal master or teacher in charge.

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) said that the cost was very much less than the cost of colleges in this country. The German plan of support was to get as much from the students as was possible, and the rest was made up from Government resources. He added that the Section had heard some very interesting papers, and he was sure that the feeling of all present was that their thanks were due to the gentlemen who had read the papers, and likewise to Miss Miller for her very suggestive paper. The Rev. Canon Cromwell's paper would lead to a great deal of question, he had no doubt, respecting the comparison of the general conditions of German life with the conditions of English life. It was clear that in many respects the teaching profession had an advantage there which it had not here. He fancied, from his remembrance of Mr. Mark Pattison's report, that Saxony was almost the foremost country in Germany in respect of education.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 5TH, 10 A.M.

Chairman: Mons. A. COUVREUR.

THE UNIVERSITIES IN THEIR RELATION TO THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

By the Rev. R. H. QUICK.

"They tax our policy and call it cowardice,
Count wisdom as no member of the war,
Forestall prescience, and esteem no act
But that of hand: the still and mental parts
That do contrive how many hands shall strike,
When fitness calls them on, and know by measure
Of their observant toil the enemies' weight—
Why, this hath not a finger's dignity:
They call this bed-work, mappery, closet-war:
So that the ram that batters down the wall,
For the great swing and rudeness of his poise,
They place before his hand that made the engine,
Or those that with the fineness of their souls
By reason guide his execution."

Troilus and Cressida, Act I., Sc. 3.

THE committee who settled the distribution of subjects have allotted one to me which I should gladly have chosen myself had not its great importance demanded for it better treatment than I can give.

I have to bring before you Universities in their Relation to the Training of Teachers.

In this connection there are two things we want to know: 1st. what Universities have done for the training of school teachers; and, 2ndly, what Universities *can* do?

I am afraid all that has been done in Universities where English is spoken could soon be told. Even the twenty minutes at my disposal would more than suffice for an exhaustive account. However, as I wish to speak on the second head, I will merely mention that these Universities are already trying to do something, and that there are several English-speaking professors of education who are doing excellent work. The very mention of Universities and the training of teachers will at once suggest to you the names of Professors Laurie and Meiklejohn in Scotland, and Payne in America.

On the Continent, especially in Germany, the Universities have been for many years engaged in this work, and some of the best living authorities on education, as e.g., Professor Stoy, of Jena, devote themselves to it. From some of these authorities we shall, I hope, get the benefit of their great experience.

But as far as my twenty minutes will allow, I wish to consider the problem—What *can* the Universities do?

The Universities, Oxford and Cambridge at all events, would be very much obliged to us if we would tell them. We live in a bustling age. Everybody must be doing something—no matter what, so long as nobody is idle. So the Universities—Cambridge and London at least—have felt that they should be doing something for education. They have set to work accordingly with the only machinery they had in stock. Cambridge has had lectures and an examination; London, after its manner, an examination only. But these well-meant efforts have at present met with little success. In Cambridge it was well understood that nobody would think of attending lectures if there was no examination to prepare for; but it seems to have been forgotten that nobody would go in for an examination without prizes. Such an examination would naturally strike students as ending in nothing, like a love-game at

whist. So the lecturer has been a voice in the desert, and the examination mill has gone round almost without grist.

"I told you so," say some of the head masters; "we want good teachers, and reading 'theory' in Comenius and Locke, or even 'practice' in good books like Fitch's won't make men good teachers. Can't the Universities start practising schools, and train the teachers by actual work? You might as well attempt to make a man a pianist without ever touching a piano, or a swimmer without going into the water, as a school teacher without ever taking a class of boys."

This seems so reasonable that a great many people in the Universities and elsewhere heartily agree to it. The conclusion they arrive at is this: either the Universities must establish training schools, or they must acknowledge that they can do nothing for the preparation of teachers.

The conclusion I have arrived at is very different, viz., first, that the Universities can do little if anything to give skill in school teaching; secondly, that they can do much towards supplying the chief need for education in our time, and in that way can affect all teaching and all teachers.

I say boldly that what English schoolmasters now stand in need of is *theory;* and, further, that the Universities have especial advantages for meeting this need.

If I were an amateur educationist I know most English schoolmasters would laugh me to scorn, and tell me that a fortnight in the school-room would show me that I was talking nonsense. But I have spent nearly a quarter of a century in the school-room, and this conviction is the outcome of my experience.

Let me endeavour, in as few words as I can, to explain this eccentric opinion of mine, and if I cannot establish the truth of it, at least render it in some degree probable.

Englishmen in general, schoolmasters in particular, seem anxious to do without theory. Does it never occur to them that if they are afraid of theory, they must do without science and without religion? All science is theory in one sense of the word, all religion is theory in another

sense. When the eye of the mind is directed to phenomena it does not rest satisfied with them ; it wants to get behind them and account for them. In other words, we must have a theory. Where we can obtain demonstrated truth, this theory is science ; where we have not arrived at certainty, still more where we cannot arrive at it, we must content ourselves with a theory which rests on hypothesis. In this latter category all religions are included. Considered simply on the intellectual side they are theories.

As there is still a great demand both for science and religion, the world at large does not seem able to do without theory, and must, therefore, have found some use in it.

What is it then that we may fairly expect theory to do for us? 1st, it should explain to us things as they are ; 2nd, it should show us things as they might be, or in other words, put an ideal before us ; 3rd, it should enable us to see how, what now is, may be changed in the direction of the ideal, of what might be.

This is exactly what we want to have done for us in education. That is to say, our great need is theory.

But some one may say, even if this is true, we do not want theory for young teachers. If we had a theory of education that would do all this for us, of course the Universities should put it before young teachers, but nobody pretends that we have anything of the kind at present. If young teachers trouble themselves about theory, they will speculate and become what is called "viewy." Such people are apt to get slack in their practice, or else to try alterations, which in nine cases out of ten are not improvements. In every occupation the beginner, if he would succeed, must stick to what is already established. He must acquire skill in the traditional practice. If there is a traditional theory he must swallow it ; if there is not, he must not invent one. Solicitors would be shy of a man who in his first year at the bar declared himself an ardent law reformer or propounded a new plan of dealing with juries. Young doctors must accept whatever theory is taught them in the hospitals. A young tailor or bootmaker must find out how clothes

are made, not try to show how they ought to be made. If we set an ideal before us which is not the ordinary ideal of those in our calling, we may succeed in our own opinion and fail in the opinion of other people; if we master principles, and, discarding the usual methods, trust to these principles to guide us, we may make mistakes in applying them, and even true principles may seem to us to justify what in the end is found to be wrong practice.

These I take it are the considerations that have led to a general distrust of all attempts to teach theory to young masters, or get them interested in the theoretical side of their profession.

Still I maintain that the great need for *all* teachers now-a-days is *theory*, and that for two reasons:—

1st. There are no doubt some occupations that are best carried on without thought. This is well put by the author (to me a great unknown) of the facetious lines:

> "The centipede was happy quite,
> Until the toad in fun
> Asked, 'Pray which leg comes after which?'
> Which worked her mind to such a pitch,
> She lay distracted in a ditch
> Considering how to run."

But school teaching is *not* one of these occupations. Directly it becomes a mere practice it is corrupted, for there is nothing more deadly in its effects on both teacher and taught than routine.

2nd. This of course applies to school teaching at all times, but surely just now there is a special reason why theory is necessary. Practice without theory, rule-of-thumb work as it is called, runs smoothly enough so long as there is a perfect tradition to guide it; but where tradition fails, rule-of-thumb comes to a stand. Observe children working sums without knowing the theory of arithmetic. They may work sums very correctly like those in the book; but if you introduce the smallest variation they are puzzled directly. Now the spirit of the times, our great examiner, refuses to be bound by the book. It keeps setting us sums quite dif-

ferent to those set in previous examinations ; and we must either be plucked or get some principles to guide us.

Not many years ago no one was supposed to need education except the few who were to be made "scholars and gentlemen." The spirit of this age demands education for everyone ; and as for the scholar, though it does not doubt his excellence, it denies with considerable emphasis that the only fruit worth growing is the pine apple. These then are some of the questions our examiner has set us :—How is an education to be provided for everybody ? What is to be taught to those who do not want Latin and Greek ? How are sciences, which are totally different from anything hitherto taught in the school-room, to be introduced and made part of the regular school work ?

Here we have a few only of the questions we have to answer, and the traditional practice of our profession gives us no assistance. If we can get no light from theory we must walk on in darkness, and perhaps travel only too fast—down a precipice.

Unless I am much mistaken, we have, for want of theory, tumbled over one precipice, and have not yet recovered from the injuries we received. We had a minister of education who derided the notion that there was such a thing, or could be such a thing, as a science of education. But even he found the need of a theory ; so being a very clever man he invented one. He seems to have got at it by analogy. Education for the rich meant learning Latin and Greek ; so education for the poor must mean learning the three R's. On this theory he constructed a gigantic machine worked by the State, the sole object of which was to teach every poor boy, and poor girl, to read, write and cipher. The result has, I think, sufficiently proved that he was not wise in scoffing at the science of education, and refusing to be taught such science as we had.

But if I am right in maintaining that our great want is a true theory or science of education, what can the Universities do for us in this matter ?

The Universities ought to be the brains of our social

system. They naturally attract many of the best intellects in the country, and they afford them the most favourable conditions for working. A vast amount of thought has already been given to the theory of education, and a number of valuable principles have already been established. Let the Universities appoint able men to bring these principles together, and to apply them to the solution of the educational problems of our time. In this way the Universities will fulfil the function of the brain, and get the thinking done. There will be plenty of practice in any case, and it is only by *thinking* that the Universities can affect it. Undirected or misdirected activity is the chief danger of our time. As Professor Seeley has said, "the idleness, which prevailed so long in the church and school, has been succeeded by a merely external and superficial industry. Our conversion seems to have begun, not at the heart, but at the extremities. The hands and feet have thrown off their listlessness, and move to and fro indefatigably; the tongue, throat, and lungs tax themselves prodigiously; but the change will be more in form than in substance till it penetrates to the brain. . . . . A higher and calmer sort of activity must be arrived at—economy in energy, expenditure without waste, and zeal without haste." ('Lectures and Essays,' by J. R. Seeley, p. 282.) This sort of activity is possible only when the brain controls every action. What we need then in education is thought, brain-work, and this the Universities can give us.

Unfortunately, in these days, instead of the brain directing the hands, the hands direct the brain. The Universities would very gladly have let education alone if the head masters had not required them to "do something." They have "done something," and because no immediate results are perceptible, they think they must have made a mistake and ask the head masters, "What are we to do now?" In reply the head masters say, "It is not the least use *thinking*, Practice is the thing. If you wish to help in the preparation of teachers establish practising schools."

For my part I should be sorry to say a word against

practising schools, or even to deny that they might be useful in Oxford and Cambridge. All I wish to urge is this :—that the distinctive function of a University is not action, but thought, and that the best thing the Universities can do for schoolmasters is to employ some of their keenest intellects in considering education on the side of theory, and in teaching such principles respecting it as have been, or can be established.

The following note by Dr. Stoy was then read by Dr. Henkel :—

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

By Dr. Stoy,

Lecturing Professor, and Principal of the Training College at the University of Jena, Saxe-Weimar.

I am glad to see that one of the most important problems in the life of any civilized nation, the training of teachers, figures among the subjects in the programme of the Educational Conference. In most countries the plan of studies both in the classical and the modern schools is such as to be positively injurious to the physical and moral health of the pupils and rather to disgust them with their studies. But a reform of schools is impossible without a reform of the training-system for teachers. By what means can a reform be carried out ?

Now, in the first place, it stands to reason that masters or teachers at higher schools cannot possibly be trained and led in the right way by a few occasional hints only.

Secondly, a thoroughly systematic and methodical course of training is absolutely necessary to obtain good, efficient teachers.

Thirdly, it is a fact that all attempts made at German universities to train masters without the strictest discipline, have been either without a satisfactory result or absolutely fruitless.

Permit me to lay before you the principles on which I

have trained masters for more than twenty-five years in the Training College at the University of Jena, Saxe-Weimar, a college which was founded and attached to the University in 1875, and reorganised in 1876 by an enlightened government on the basis of my method. A large number of masters, principals, and inspectors in Germany have gone forth from the Jena Training College.

My training college has two courses.

First course. Principles and theory :—

1. In order to avoid and prevent all mechanical cramming and superficial varnish in the place of a thorough education, the training college student has to work his way through the whole system of philosophic pedagogics. Thus he becomes acquainted with the leading ideas and aims for teaching-work, discipline and health.

2. He has to study psychology to enable him to find the proper ways and means of dealing with his pupils.

3. In order to find examples and models for his vocation, he also studies the history of education.

Second course. Practical training :—

1. The practical application of theory, consists in the training college student learning how to control himself in his didactic intercourse with the pupils.

2. For this purpose a complete school of several classes or forms must be attached to the training college.

3. Every student is directed and guided in his teaching-work in one special form, and later on in all the forms and all the branches gradually.

4. Every student works out a plan or programme for every lesson he is going to give, and hands it over to the principal for approval.

5. During the class-work other students and the principal himself are present.

6. The teaching work done in the classes is thoroughly criticised in special conferences by the principal and others who have attended.

7. In this manner every student is taught how to criticise not only others, but himself as well, and thus he turns theory into *succum et sanguinem.*

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN (Mons. Couvreur) said that Professor Stoy's school was a training school for teachers, not for elementary education, but for middle class and high education. It formed inspectors and directors of middle class schools. In a communication Professor Stoy had just made to him, he wished to insist on the point, that the training college which is under his supervision is a dependency of the university of Jena, and that it combines practice with theory in its teaching.

The Rev. Dr. CAMPBELL said he had the honour to belong to one of the few universities in Great Britain which had the advantage of an Educational Chair, and he was very glad to take the opportunity of saying how gladly they all welcomed the addition to their membership of a Chair for the history, theory, and practice of education. Perhaps that advantage was not given them altogether without their deserts. Their only regret was that the Chair had hitherto been so poorly endowed. That was partly in consequence of a misunderstanding or a hitch in the management of the affair in Parliament. He could not exactly recall the circumstances, but an understanding was come to that if an endowment of £200 was provided by a certain fund or something approaching to it, a corresponding sum would be available from a Parliamentary grant. Some objection was made in the course of the negotiation, and it never came to anything. The consequence was that the Chair was extremely poorly endowed, but they had added to their members a most distinguished person, Professor Meiklejohn, who he was quite certain would carry forward the work of training teachers from a university point of view, and in the best manner. The Chair was entitled, The Chair of the History, Theory, and Practice of Education, and perhaps he might say, with some reference to

the paper which had been read, that the theory of education could not advantageously be separated from the history or from the practice of education. They welcomed that Chair as a complement to the other Chairs of the university, and they claimed that in the past their university had had its share in the training of teachers, and was preparing students for the work of education. The educator could look at present to little else to guide him besides the experience and examples set before him in his own education ; but this did not count for nothing, and at St. Andrews they had to some extent felt the responsibility of being the teachers of teachers. They felt that although, for instance, in teaching Greek, they were often not teaching that which their pupils were afterwards to teach, yet they might hope that in the future their pupils might look back to their lessons in Greek at St. Andrews as some stimulus and some example of method in teaching others. Theory was most desirable, and he could say he was not one of those who were jealous of theories, but theory must be based upon experience, and must be verified. Professor Meiklejohn's method of instruction was not merely that of positive theory, but comprised also the criticism of existing methods. St. Andrews had long been a home for intending teachers, and claimed a share in the training of a no less distinguished person than the head master of Westminster, who was only one of a great number of teachers who had gone forth from St. Andrews in the last ten, twenty, or thirty years, and who now held distinguished places, and were, he believed, doing really good work. He did not dissent from the main drift of the paper which had been read, but he only wished to point out that, if theory was to give them an ideal, they wanted first of all an ideal of the perfect theory of education, which, as Plato in the Phœdrus long since taught, it was impossible to obtain without an exhaustive psychology and exhaustive metaphysics.

Mr. H. C. BOWEN said he was glad to have the opportunity of making a few remarks with regard to Mr. Quick's

paper, as it was always a great pleasure to be in any way associated with anything that Mr. Quick had to say on education. He could not entirely agree with the proposal that the English universities should undertake simply the theory of education as apart from actual practice in the practising school. It would be a great thing to have professors of teaching at the universities, but if they were to lay before the universities an *ideal* plan he did not think that theory without practice was sufficient. He did not say this as a mere guess, as he had had some experience, though not a very long one, in trying to train university men for the work of higher education in England. Finsbury Training College was the only college of the kind which existed in the United Kingdom, and its experience was not large; still its experience went to show him that until students had had some practice in a class with real school work, and had had some opportunity of seeing how the theories they had listened to in their lectures worked out in practice, everything seemed to be in the clouds. The idea never became a reality; it was something which might or might not be true. It was a matter for argument, not one which had any reference to real life. A great deal of the work which was done at the universities suffered in the same way for the want of practice. Mr. Quick said the universities ought to be the brains of the country. That was very true; but could they look upon the admirable work which Professor Stuart had been doing of late years at Cambridge as unsuited to the University because the great worth of it lay rather in the workshop than in mere theory? He thought they must say it was not necessary that the University should restrict itself to theory, and that in many cases it would be impossible for it to do so. He knew that the University—he spoke specially of the University of Cambridge—was not very keen about the matter of a Professorship of Teaching, and it might be wise for them not to say anything which would endanger the success of a proposal that they should found such a professorship. But if the matter were taken up at

Cambridge at all, he had great hope that the practising part would be possible as well as theoretical. Cambridge was the only University which gave them much hope at the present time, but he thought it would be not quite wise to urge only one point when there was a chance of getting both. He was sure they must all feel that what Mr. Quick had said had given them a good deal to think about; and for his part, if he disagreed with him, it was not with any great confidence that he necessarily was right and Mr. Quick wrong.

Professor STEEN (Copenhagen) said that the question which had been raised by the Rev. Mr. Quick in his very interesting paper compelled him to give an explanation of the way in which in his country they had just altered the manner of training teachers. The University of Copenhagen had never had anything to do with the training of teachers for elementary schools. Four, formerly five, so-called seminaries, supported and administered by Government, trained teachers for the elementary schools. Before 1867 the seminaries, after a course of two or three years, held an examination of their own pupils as well as of privately educated candidates. Since that year the examinations were held by a commission in three places in the country, to which all future teachers in elementary schools must be admitted. That change was occasioned by a most unjustifiable distrust of the seminaries on the part of the representatives of the people (the members of the "Folkething"). Results, however, had proved that the teachers trained in the seminaries passed a better examination than those privately taught. As the numbers of those had increased, it was very likely that the level of knowledge was lowered so much that he would not wonder if the intrinsic value of the teachers was sunk to the same extent. The training of teachers for the higher schools belonged now, and had always belonged, to the university. These higher schools were either grammar schools (Danish "Lærde Skoler," learned schools) or "Realskoler." He followed the example

of Lord Reay in his address by using that name. In the latter Latin and Greek were not taught, but Mathematics, Physics, Foreign Languages (always English, while French and German were left to choice, if the pupils did not go through both), Natural History, Geography, History, Drawing. The grammar schools retained their pupils till the age of eighteen, the "Realskoler" only till sixteen. The grammar schools had in the two last years partly classes common to all the pupils in Danish, History, French, English, partly classes in which some pupils gave particular attention to the ancient languages, while other pupils applied themselves particularly to Mathematics and Physics. The former class finished the mathematical course in their sixteenth year; at the same age the latter finished with Latin, and never learnt Greek. The "Realskoler" recruited their teachers from the university students who had passed the examination in theology without intending to take holy orders, or who had pursued a particular study at the university in order to turn their once-acquired knowledge to account by teaching. Their practical training as teachers had generally been acquired while studying at the university, by their having been compelled to teach as a means of supporting themselves. Part of the teachers in the "Realskoler" had first passed an examination as teachers for elementary schools, but then continued their studies, through the assistance of Government, under the superintendence of an appointed inspector. In this way several of the cleverest teachers at those schools have been trained. Another part of those schoolmasters were candidates of the Polytechnical Institution, what the French call "anciens élèves de l'École polytechnique," and very able masters were found among them, though they originally were trained for practical life. Most of the teachers at the grammar schools were formerly trained philologically at the university, because the classical languages were generally only learned in the first decades of this century. Some students of theology were employed who did duty for some

years before being ordained, as well as other graduates from the university who were interested in some science, and had gained proficiency and experience in teaching in private schools. By-and-bye Mathematics took a higher standing in the instruction, so much so that the polytechnic candidates were admitted to be masters. Later on there had been arranged examinations for Masters of Arts at the university concerning such a group of sciences as the candidates desired to go through, and the university complied with, which examinations were often passed by those, too, who intended to go into professorships at the university. None of those courses were sufficiently adapted to masters of schools in our time. Therefore the philological examination was completely done away with in the old form. Now the future teacher chose a principal science for thorough study. Such principal study could be applied to one of the ten following sciences: Danish, Latin, Greek, French, German, English, History, Mathematics, Physics, Natural History and Geography combined. But the student must at the same time study two or three auxiliary sciences, in which a lesser degree of knowledge might be sufficient. Some auxiliary sciences were obligatory, and some were left to choice. Greek was always auxiliary to Latin, and *vice versa*. The same was the case with Mathematics and Physics. Latin was auxiliary to French, but the student could choose French as auxiliary science to Latin. Astronomy was auxiliary to Mathematics and Physics, but Astronomy being only in a small degree learned in the schools, could not be a principal science in the examination of masters in the higher schools, and so on. Those who had passed satisfactorily through those examinations were called "candidati magisterii." A condition of their appointment in Government schools was their having been present at the teaching in the grammar school for a considerable time; having next for some time taken the place of, or done the duty for, some other teacher; and lastly, having given lessons in the presence of the headmaster or of the master in the science wherein the lessons

were going on, and of an able and experienced man appointed by the Ministry of Instruction. Either before or at the same time this practical course was being followed the future teacher must have attended a term of lectures on pedagogics by a professor of philosophy of the university, and have taken part in attendance at written and oral examinations. There was no special professor of pedagogics at the University of Copenhagen, and there did not seem to be any particular disposition to appoint one, that science being considered too limited to demand a special chair. In that manner they hoped to supply their higher schools with masters who both theoretically and practically should go through their difficult duties, but that was only a hope as yet, because the arrangement was quite new.

Miss COOPER (Head Mistress of Edgbaston High School for Girls) said she felt it required considerable courage to get up in an assembly like that to say anything on such a difficult and complicated subject. She had taken very great interest in the work of the training of teachers, and as a practical school-mistress for a considerable number of years, she had seen a good deal of what teaching was in girls' schools, and what the wants and difficulties of teachers were. In the teaching profession she thought there were distinct differences to be observed between men and women teachers, and she was not quite sure that what was true of men teachers as to the training necessary for them, would also be true of women teachers and of the training necessary for them. However, she did not agree altogether with what Mr. Bowen had said about the practical work, but she was very heartily in sympathy with what Mr. Quick had said about the need of theory. Women had been accustomed for so many generations to attend to minute detail and practical work, that perhaps they required less training in the details of practical work, whilst it was of much more importance to them to give them wide and high ideas of the principles and theories which guided them Speaking of teachers, and especially women

teachers, it seemed to her that what they wanted was a training in the principles that underlay their work, and compared with that she cared comparatively little about the practising school. She thought a very little training in practical work was sufficient to do what was needed for women teachers, provided they had received, and were ready to act up to, the principles of their work. She was not sure that she altogether liked any practising school she had seen. She had not yet seen Jena, but she hoped to do so some day, and to see the practical work which was being done there. The practising schools which she had seen in England and America had not satisfied her, though in some of them the methods of work were excellent, and she was much pleased with the way in which some of the training was given, under what she might call mutual improvement classes of student teachers; she meant that the practice was not upon children, but upon the teachers of one training class by the teachers of another. The question of teaching was a question partly of theory and partly of experience, and her experience with regard to teachers was not so much that their methods were faulty. The great fault she noticed with the teachers she found to be least satisfactory, was that there never was enough originality and spontaneity in their work. The real scientific spirit of teaching, combined with the power of taking facts as they come before us in the schoolroom, and of placing and of applying those facts in their relation to principles, that was the spirit which made a good teacher. In choosing teachers they had two things to look for. First of all, were they naturally people who had tact and sympathy and the power of entering into the thoughts and feelings of others? Secondly, had they sufficiently appreciated what the aim of their work was, and had they some notion of how they should set about it? If they had those a very few weeks in a schoolroom would give them as much practice as they needed to become good teachers in what she considered the best sense of the word—teachers who would really get hold of their pupils and who would

really educate them. There were two parts in their school-work that they had to keep in mind; one was the giving of information, and the other was the far more important aim of mental discipline of their pupils. Whether the practising school was so successful in producing people who could really discipline and, in the highest sense of the word, educate their pupils she very much doubted. For girls, especially, they wanted to keep in view the really important matter of mental discipline. They did not want to turn out their girls mere learned people, and if they should allow that to become their ideal in the highest education of girls, she for one would be sorry that the movement had ever been started. She did not think a set of learned ladies was what we wanted to produce in the community, but we did want to produce liberal-minded, large-hearted women. They wanted to keep the ideal of the value of the mental discipline of school work constantly before them. There might be a difference between schoolmistresses and schoolmasters. Perhaps it was necessary for boys—she was not prepared to judge—to be brought up on more utilitarian principles than girls; but she wanted to see the utilitarian principle kept out of girls' schools, and therefore she pleaded very earnestly for real instruction in theory for schoolmistresses at least. She could not understand how in that matter people should be so willing to put practice before theory. Of course, when they trained children in science they wanted them to proceed from facts to generalisations; but they were no longer children, and their training was not training simply; it was training to do work. If they got their theory from their experiments on children, the children who were subjected to experiments would suffer largely in the course. The result was uncertain, and the process was very slow. She had been struck with the way in which people attempted to teach small things—games for example. Some would say, "Watch me and you will be able to do it." One watched, but one was not able to do it. Other people would say, "What you have to try to do is to aim, say, your

tennis-ball so that it comes over the net and gets into such a court. As to the kind of stroke some people use this and some that." One had then some idea what to do, and if one had any faculty for games, the game might be learnt. She had been very much struck because people seemed to think that in teaching games, and so on, there was no need to teach what the aim was, or what had to be set about. She thought those people represented the part of the educational world who believed one had simply to watch and to try for one's self, and that the theory of aim of the work was comparatively unimportant. As to another point, she spoke with some diffidence in the way of criticism of what Professor Stoy had brought before them, but for young women teachers she was not quite sure that in practising schools they were not a little bit disposed to too much criticism and analysis. A great many teachers who might prove valuable teachers in the end were stinted by that process of criticism—a criticism which, in some lessons she had heard, was after all a criticism of unimportant details. She did not think it mattered very much if occasionally a question was asked to which the answer might be "Yes," but she did think it of paramount importance that nothing should be done to crush the sensitive and nervous organisation of young teachers who came to be trained. Therefore, those criticism lessons were, she thought, fraught with dangers. She had not gone through them herself; perhaps she would not appreciate the danger if she had, but she had sat through such criticism-lessons, and had seen the nervous ordeal it was for some young women to go through them, and she had felt that really it was not all gain for such a student teacher. In conclusion, as a practical schoolmistress who had not been altogether without success in her work, and who had had a large staff of under-mistresses passing under her supervision, who had had success and failure like a good many others in a choice of assistants, she wished very much to emphasise her strong feeling of the necessity of sound theoretical training. So far from an ounce of practice being worth a pound of theory, she was inclined to put it the

other way, and say that an ounce of real theory was worth a pound of practice.

Dr. RIGG, Wesleyan Training College, said that few men had done more for the theory of education in this country than his friend Mr. Quick; but from that gentleman's paper one would really suppose that there was no theory of education at all in the English language. There he entirely joined issue with Mr. Quick. If he meant that the universities had done little or nothing in England towards the theory of education, he had no doubt that was quite true; but he was not at all prepared to ignore all that belonged to scientific treatment of education, and the theory of education which had grown up especially in connection with our elementary schools during the last forty years. He must remind the meetings of such names as Stow, and Stow went to the root so far as many principles of education were concerned. They could not altogether forget the name of Herbert Spencer. Mr. Fitch had published lectures which were exceedingly valuable both with regard to the theory and practice of education. Professor Bayn, they might not all agree with, but they could hardly ignore him. The name of Professor Underwood was well known. Professor Sully, of University College, was a writer and lecturer upon the theory and principles of education, very scientifically treated indeed. There was Mr. Quick himself, whom they could not forget; and then, of a somewhat humbler scope, but by no means destitute of scientific grounding for principles, there were such works as Mr. Currie, and as Professor Morrison of Glasgow had produced. There was also a valuable manual for teaching, which had been published by the National Society. He thought it was very important that they should bear those things in mind, and not allow it to be supposed they had been doing nothing in England in regard to this matter for the last sixty years. No doubt they wanted some genius to put these things into the very best form, and to introduce them to our English universities with proper sanction, and with sufficient

prestige, but that was a different thing, from there being no theory at all upon the subject of education. Then, as to whether theory was sufficient without practice, and as to the relative value of theory and of practice, he could not agree with Mr. Quick. He believed that theory just now was more wanted than practice, especially in certain quarters, and he believed that theory was badly wanted for the higher schools of this country, and more badly wanted for them than for any other schools. But as to practice, he thought theory without practice, as had been very justly said by Mr. Bowen, would be very much like a course of lectures to medical students without having any schools of anatomy at which they might study *pari passu* with their attendance at those lectures. It would be difficult to say what should be the relative proportion of theory and of practice. There was no doubt that as the mind was more fully developed in faculty, and in sensibility, and in perfect control of itself, there might be less practice. Those who went more completely accomplished and developed into schools would very much sooner acquire the practice that was necessary than those who went with inferior mental development—and that was a principle of the greatest importance to be borne in mind, and which no doubt went towards forming the views presented to them with the authority of experience and successful teaching by the lady who had spoken, the Principal of the Girls' High School at Edgbaston. He had no doubt that girls took more easily to teaching, and taught with more perfect self-forgetfulness, and with more perfect sympathy than, on an average, was done by the other sex; and he had had some opportunity of looking at that subject, not only theoretically, but practically. He had been from the beginning one of the Council of the Bishopsgate College for training female teachers for twenty-seven schools, and he was bound to say he believed the instruction given in that college was not only important because of such lectures as had there been given by Mr. Fitch, by Canon Daniel, and by Mr. Sully, but he believed it was

scarcely less important because of the excellent practice there obtained in the practising school. He had means of knowing how girls there trained had, in several instances, been taken to schools that had little of science and little of true methods, and how those young ladies had revolutionised the schools, and from a second or third position had been promoted to be head assistant-mistress of the school. He believed that the training college in Bishopsgate Street, by its results and by its future development, was destined to do very much indeed to illustrate what belonged to the subject they were considering, and he was not surprised to hear Mr. Bowen, who was the head of a sort of sister institution of later date, take the line he did in regard to the relative proportions which must be maintained between theory and practice. It was a mistake to suppose that practice, under an intelligent teacher, was ever apart from theory. If they took, for instance, such a teacher as Miss Beale, of Cheltenham, could they suppose that she taught her pupil teachers merely the practice without intimating the reasons? It was quite out of the question. No doubt she did all along, together with her practice, give some theory; and in his judgment it was the best way to give theory at first, by means of that sort of practice, under a successful teacher. Pupils would then take in theory as food was given to children, in small morsels, together with the practice, and would acquire theory unconsciously—that was the case under first-class teachers. He found it was the fashion to say that pupil teachers were wrong for elementary schools, but student teachers for superior schools were right; but what was the student teacher in the superior school but the same in effect as the pupil teacher in the elementary school? Let any one go to Cheltenham and take notice how Miss Beale taught the twenty or twenty-five student teachers she had there. That school was a training college of a sort, and there were science and theory in that training as well as practice. He thought they might draw their lines too sharp in discussions on that subject.

Dr. Ernst von Sallwürk (Oberschulrath, Karlsruhe) said that in Germany the schoolmasters of the elementary schools were all trained, but that the professors of the higher schools were without training. The question was whether it was beneficial to give routine to those teachers to whom many think it preferable to give only higher ideas and higher scientific accomplishments, whereas to himself mere routine seemed a perilous thing in the hands of teachers of a less comprehensive learning. It was a very great difficulty to combine practice with theory, and at the same time to give all the scientific accomplishment which teachers might not all have. Training schools for higher teachers in Germany were only organised by the adherents of Herbart's school, to which he belonged, as well as his friend Professor Stoy, of Jena. There was great difficulty in combining theory with practice, but the greatest difficulty could not be a reason, or even an excuse, for doing nothing at all. His heartfelt wish was that that difficult question might be resolved in England not only for the good of that country, but also of his own.

Mr. H. W. Eve (Head Master of University College School) said he rather wished to support the view of Mr. Bowen than that of Mr. Quick. He was in favour of training being in connection with practice rather than independent of it, as he thought it must be to a certain extent in an university. It seemed to him that pedagogy could not be made a means of mental training. It was not like history, classics, mathematics, and so on; it consisted simply in putting together a number of facts bearing upon practical work. One part of the teacher's training is the learning of the subject he has to teach. A lawyer has two things to learn; he has to learn a great quantity of law that he has to deal with, and he has to learn the art of cross-examining and putting things to a jury. Pedagogy corresponded not so much to law as to the art of putting things to a jury and to cross-examining. Therefore he was disposed to lay less stress than Mr. Quick did upon the actual lecturing in the university. Such occa-

sional lectures as those which had been given at Cambridge were, he thought, excellent. They professed to be suggestions to set future teachers thinking about their work and to keep them from common errors. The real teaching of pedagogy must be in connection with actual practice. If they taught Greek, they did not begin by giving lectures on Greek grammar. Boys must learn Greek and Latin grammar, but the main teaching of classics was with the author before them, and so he believed the main teaching of pedagogy must be.

The CHAIRMAN (Mons. Couvreur), quoting the French proverb, "La parole est d'argent et le silence d'or," said he would not make a long speech, as their time was very short. He might say that the difficulties in Belgium were quite the same as in England. They had training schools, with too much theoretical labour. He heard that in some of the English universities there was pedagogical teaching; in Belgium they had none, neither in their public nor in their private universities. He thought it was a great drawback, but they must wait for a better state of things.

PROFESSORSHIPS AND LECTURESHIPS ON EDUCATION.

By J. M. D. MEIKLEJOHN, M.A.,

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THERE is, in the three kingdoms, no one man who gives the whole of his time to observing and to thinking about the educational processes which are going on in our schools every day. There are hundreds of Professors of Medicine; and these men not only extend the limits of their

science—of the different departments of their science; but they teach and train those persons who are in time to go into the world to practise medicine and to cure diseases. The observation of the workings of the mind, and of the growth of the mind, is no less difficult than the observation of the workings and of the growth of the body; but we have not yet been able to set apart a number of men for the faithful pursuit of the former inquiry. There is, in no University in England, a single person whose duty it is to guide a teacher in his daily practice. So far as the English Universities are concerned, education is still in its amateur and empiric stage. Hence much friction, great waste of mental power, great waste of time, and disappointing results.

Take the question on its most practical side. We have possession of several years of the lives—of the best parts of the lives—of several millions of our fellow-beings. What can we do with this very precious, but most inconvenient possession? It is plain that our duty is to do the best with it. But who will tell us what that best is? We can, it is true, go on as other teachers have done; but none of these teachers have been able to look upon the question of education as a whole. They have not even been able to look upon it as a whole for any single individual. On the other hand, from the point of view of the learner, his attempt to obtain the best education for himself has in it too many of the elements of a lottery. He may get what he ought to have; and he may not.

Take, again, the point of view of the teacher. His work—his chief work—is to develop spontaneous intellectual activity; in one word, to grow mind. But he has to do this work *under the condition of the presence of numbers;* and, sometimes, of large numbers. He may know the subjects he has to teach thoroughly well, may be enthusiastic in regard to several so far as his own study is concerned; and he would succeed very well if his teaching were confined to one pupil. The condition of numbers makes his work more or less of a failure.

Dr. Abbott, the Head-Master of the City of London School, and one of the ablest thinkers and teachers in the country, once said: "I gained my experience at the expense of my pupils for the first two years." There was vivisection; but the vivisection was not guided by an intelligent, much less a scientific, hand.

Who has ever raised the previous question, and asked whether all this activity—some of which looks as if it proceeded from the intellect—that goes on in our schools is really the fittest training for the mind?—whether the parts of it are really parts of a beneficent whole?—whether the end proposed—if any end has ever been thought of—is good; and whether the means to that end are the right ones?

The position of the Universities towards education is at the present moment tolerably parallel with that of Hume and Kant to the old dogmatic philosophy. For generations German and English Professors of Philosophy had been delivering lectures on God, man, the universe, free-will, the *summum bonum*, and a number of other things that have found their way into human speech. But one day it occurred to Hume in the course of his searching and thinking, to ask, "Do we then indeed know all this? and how do we know it? What is the organ and instrument for acquiring all this knowledge which fills so many philosophical books?" At this question Kant awoke from his dogmatic slumber, looked around him, and said, "I am not sure that we do know all this. Let us enquire. Let us enquire into the powers of the human mind itself, before we can say we are quite sure that we have knowledge about all these things." At these quiet touches, the imposing fabric of dogmatic philosophy dropped like a card-castle; and it was found that the work of the dogmatic philosophers, taken at its best, had been merely that of elaborating a terminology, which should serve for the architectonic labours of after-thinkers. The same questions want now to be asked about the processes which are classed under the name of education. Whether the

answering of these questions will be followed by the same results, I do not know. But I believe, from what I have seen in colleges and schools—schools both primary and secondary—that a very large part of the process called education is not useful; and some of it even worse than useless.

Let us suppose that persons were appointed to observe and to study the educational processes that go on in our schools and colleges; what would they do?

I. First of all, they would require to make a thorough-going EXAMINATION of the GROWTH and DEVELOPMENT of many different kinds of YOUNG MINDS. Here there is work, not merely for one man, but for half-a-dozen. Growth, and rules of growth of the body and of the mind—the reaction of the one on the other; what powers unfold themselves, at what time? what special food is best for the nurture of these powers? why this or that food is little nourishing, or mere obstruction, or poisonous? what powers are in danger of over-stimulation? what powers are in danger of being atrophied?—These and many other questions would have to be studied by such a person. Captain Douglas Galton has instituted, with great skill and power of organisation, a number of similar inquiries; and the results of these must take a permanent place in the foundation of any future Science of Education. Such an investigator would, further, have to inquire as to the best way of training the senses; how the senses may be directed by the mind, and how the mind may be got at through the senses; how the judgment may be trained; how the imagination is stimulated; how the will may be strengthened; and, still better, what are the true laws of the formation of habit and habits. Such a person—or such persons—must keep abreast with the latest discoveries in physiology, and in psychology; and they must have the mother-wit to discover the minor premisses which will connect these discoveries with the processes actually going on in the schoolroom; and thereby to connect and to alter our educational procedure,

where that is needful and possible. The enormous progress made by the Science of Medicine during the last forty years is due to the physiological investigations of a large band of able enquirers. It is quite fairly to be expected that similar advances might be made in the case of education; and, if we were able to obtain the services of serious and scientific enquirers into the nature and character of the growing mind, one practical benefit might accrue from such an investigation, almost at once. We might discover, for example, how many thousands of our pupils, in all kinds and classes of schools, are starved in mind and soul, because we have no adequate and interesting means of training their eyes and their hands.

II. Professors of Education would require to STUDY and to TEACH the HISTORY of EDUCATION. Many, indeed, most young teachers in this country, begin the professional labours of their life with the belief that education has no history—cannot and need not have a history; that it is, in fact, a poor and temporary art, begun in the necessity of keeping children out of mischief, continued in thoughtlessness, and ending in headaches and examination papers. The so-called art of the teacher, they think, is a merely individual art, uncommunicable and not worth communicating; and, like the mushroom growths of the South African languages mentioned by Max Müller, that have never been perpetuated in writing, and die off with each generation. But it must be of real value to the young teacher to read and to hear about the notions and ideals of education that have at different epochs prevailed among civilised peoples; and about the means that were employed to reach those ideals. Much can be learned by a survey of the history of education in China, in India, in Greece and Rome, and among the different nations of Europe at different times. Once more, what have the great thinkers of the world to tell us about education? What does Plato say? And Aristotle? What do the more modern men teach us about it? Let us go and read the thoughts of Bacon and Selden, of Milton and Locke; of Jean Paul and

Goethe. Then there are the biographies of great educators and of great thinkers on education. This is by far the most stimulating part of the history. For the young teacher learns by the blunders and by the successes of these men; he is conscious of living with fellow-mortals; he has a sense of friendship and of community of experience. The student might read the best parts of Quinctilian and get much from him; he will gain a great deal from the study of many parts of the writings of Comenius; he need not even be repelled by the exaggerations of Ratichius; Ascham's experience is still good for the teaching of Latin; from Milton's colossal plans and smaller results something may be learned; Locke has many true ideas for us; the daring paradoxes of Jacotot are not without fruitful suggestions; Pestalozzi, Fröbel, and Diesterweg have still much to give us that has not by any means been yet absorbed into our daily practice. Hints, plans, facts, principles, guidance, but above all, inspiration —these and much more can the young teacher draw from the biographies of the men who have left their lives in their work.

III. Professors of Education would have to study METHOD, and the true method of each subject that is taught in our schools. Bacon, in his *Advancement of Learning*, v. 5, says: "No perfect discovery can be made upon a flat or a level: neither is it possible to discover the more remote and deeper parts of any science, if you stand but upon the level of the same science and ascend not to a higher science." The fact is that, at present, most of those persons who study the methods and practice of education study it on the level upon which it goes on; and, still more, by far the larger majority of persons who are engaged in teaching have no time and no reason to ascend to the higher heights from which they could survey the whole country. Mr. Quick says, in his 'Educational Reformers,' p. 16: "A boy has to accustom himself by turns to half-a-dozen different methods, invented at hap-hazard by individual masters with different aims in view, if indeed they have any aim

at all." What we want, indeed, is the field of education surveyed and mapped out, and information given us with regard to the nature of the soil in the different parts of the country. But the little amateur plans and systems, produced now and then for the teaching of this or that subject by some persons who have been seized with the afflatus of a crotchet, no more resemble the methods that grow out of the twofold complete survey of the nature of the subject to be learnt and the nature of the mind learning, than the maps of tramps do to the Ordnance Maps, which are the outcome of the scientific triangulation of the country.

What is the permanent and universal condition of all METHOD? It is that it be *heuristic.* Man is by nature a seeking, inquiring, and hunting animal; and the passion for hunting is the strongest passion in him. This view has its historic side; and it will be found that the best way, the truest method, that the individual can follow, is the path of research that has been taken and followed by whole races in past times. This has, perhaps, been best put by Edmund Burke, probably the greatest constructive thinker that ever lived in this country. He says: "I am convinced that the method of teaching which approaches most nearly to the method of investigation is incomparably the best; since, not content with serving up a few barren and lifeless truths, it leads to the stock on which they grew: it tends to set the learner himself on the track of invention, and to direct him into those paths in which the author has made his own discoveries."

It may be said that this statement is applicable to science, and to science only. But I am prepared to show, at the right time, that it is applicable to literature also, though not in the fullest extent and application of the method. The heuristic method is the *only* method to be applied in the pure sciences; it is the *best* method in the teaching of the applied sciences; and it is *a* method in the study of those great works of art in language by the greatest minds which go by the general name of literature.

I said at the beginning of this Paper that the work of the teacher has to be done under the condition of numbers. Let us, for one moment, suppose a well-stored and sympathetic mind brought into contact with a younger and ignorant, but seeking, mind. The former gives out with pleasure his stores of knowledge and of thought, of science and of literature; and the other sits, with wonder and eagerness in his soul, listening with rapt and untired mind to the marvels of the new world which is the old. The elder mind can feel at once when the younger mind fully understands him, and when he fails to understand; he can stop to fill up gaps, he can ask questions, he can hark back upon a vanished trace; he can pick up a dropped clue; he can offer a hint towards the solution of a difficulty; he can set facts in such a train as to point to a onclusion, but refuse to give that conclusion;—and the action of mind upon mind, the interplay of question and answer, the examination and cross-examination, the friendly struggle of the Socratic elenchus, the thought that answers thought, and the feeling that calls to feeling—all constitute an educational process in which no essential is wanting. But the presence of numbers alters all, or much of this. The presence, too, of the outside Examiner—"the two-handed engine at the door"—alters it still further. Now—there is no play of thought—something must be "got up"; now there is no hunt—there is only a distribution of the ready-made; the class is moved to a large extent by its tail; every member of it must acquire *something;* and that something is, by the law of business gravitation, the merest minimum. Thus the teacher is edged more and more into routine; instead of a method,—a living method—living—because it guides to truth and because it will abide with his pupils after they leave school,—he has at best a good business plan; and the eagerness in pursuit, the glow from discovery or appreciation are sacrificed to hard steady drill, undeviating routine, and the perpetual pressure of business considerations.

This overriding of method by plan, this gain of a *vita*

by the loss of the true *causæ vivendi;* this domination of routine, gives rise to certain mental diseases, which infest to a greater or smaller extent almost every school-room in the country. I will touch very rapidly upon each of these.

(i) There is the disease of ENCYCLOPÆDISM—chronic and very rampant in private schools, especially those for girls. I have known girls' schools where eighteen "subjects" were taught per week. The parents wished it; the child suffered from it. Our common-sense tells us that this was a *peine forte et dure* for the young minds who had to go through the curriculum; but it is necessary to have an authoritative and reasoned deliverance on such cases. The disease of Encyclopædism brings with it the necessary device of *abridgment*; and this device of abridgment it is which makes school-books so delightful to read, such friends of our leisure-hours, such beautiful companions in the country, such longed-for refuges when we are unable to sleep, such concentrated pemmican of wisdom and knowledge.

(ii) Another disease which prevails largely in all our schools is what may roughly be called the presence of the SECOND-HAND. This is a kind of fungus which grows abundantly in places where there is little or no real intellectual life. "To give the net product of inquiry," it has been rightly said by H. Spencer, "without the inquiry that leads to it, is found to be both enervating and inefficient. General truths, to be of due and permanent use, must be earned." This second-hand matter can be appropriated by the memory alone; and it is one of the causes why, at the present day, the memory is the chief mental organ that is in use in our schools. It has invaded even the precincts of literature; and there are thousands of our scholars who, in examination papers, utter hardy judgments about books they have never even seen, and about authors, not one line of whose works they have ever read. They utter these judgments and these opinions as if they were their own—*miranturque novas frondes, et non sua poma;* the result is

not a fair and kindly fruit, but a show of Dead Sea apples; not a spontaneous play of taste and appreciation, but an intellectual imposture, about which it would be difficult to speak too strongly. The Histories of Literature, as they are called, out of which their opinions are taken bodily, are themselves full of the second-hand, the unauthentic, and the unverifiable; and no self-respecting University or College could admit them within its walls.

(iii) The Tyranny of the BOOK is another *Idolon Scholae*, which a healthier state of education would soon destroy. If we look at the question for one moment with candour and openness, we shall see that the true conception of education is simply the contact of living mind with living mind. We may come upon this contact in books; or we may not. The child misses the contact in a book more often than it finds it. The old conception of Education—it was Mr. Robert Lowe's—was a very simple one: A book, a teacher, a learner; the teacher behind, the learner in front, the book in the middle; and the process was to decant the contents of the book into the learner as expeditiously as possible. But where, in such a process, are the feeble but kindly and vital beginnings?—where is the bright interplay of question and answer?—where the guess and the hint, the seeking and the finding, the "coming to many ways in the wanderings of careful thought," the eager rising to truth, the grasp after beauty, the corporate enthusiasm, the "flash of identity in diversity," the exhilarating charm, the emotion that is unexhausted after a hundred repetitions?"* Learning is never attended by weariness or by discouragement; the book that has to be "got up" is the living symbol of a deadly fatigue. The art of questioning in the teacher; the growing power of acute and skilful analysis; the insight into the number and kind of steps that a class must take in each part of a subject,—all these are killed off by the possession of *The Book*.

(iv) A fourth disease which weakens our educational

* Bain's "Education as a Science," p. 85.

procedure is the PREMATURE. Even sympathetic teachers are overridden in their judgments by the expectations of examiners, the desires of parents, and the demands of what is called the general public. We every day force upon children thoughts and knowledge that, at the right age, they would gladly welcome for themselves; we anticipate results, and deprive them of the educative and edifying pleasure of finding them; and the intellectual stomachs of the children suffer from the malady of the time—stuffing and imperfect digestion. "It would be a triumph of teaching," says Dr. Abbott, "if we were never to give a definition until the class demanded it." The pious Pestalozzi is filled with measureless remorse when he finds that he has *given* a little boy a conception, instead of inducing him to find it for himself. Indeed, it may be said that we need an inquiry, conducted by open-minded persons, as to what mental food is best suited to what mental age; and we need the results of such inquiry to be applied to the different kinds of procedure in our schools. As things are, "by denying the knowledge the child craves, and can take, and cramming it with knowledge it cannot digest, we produce a morbid state of the faculties. . . . The child becomes a mere passive recipient of our instruction; and we infer that education must necessarily be carried on thus. Having by our method induced helplessness, we make the helplessness a reason for our method."

(v) Another disease from which we suffer, and suffer grievously, is the DIDACTIC DISEASE. This means, in two words, *telling* instead of *teaching*. Mr. Wilson, the Head-Master of Clifton College, stigmatizes as synonymous "the most stupid and the most didactic teaching." He might have also called it *the most stupefying*. Put shortly, this is an attempt on the part of the teacher to do everything for his pupil—as if he could digest for him; and the result is that all the healthy passions and emotions of the learner—wonder, curiosity, interest, hope, striving—are kept on the wrong side of the school-door. There they wait, till the boy is freed from the wearisome grind; and then

they fly with him to the fields and the river-side, to the quarry and the sea-shore. It is said of Dr. Arnold by Dean Stanley (Life i. 115), that, "as a general rule, he never gave information, except as a kind of reward for an answer, and often withheld it altogether, from a sense that those whom he was addressing had not sufficient interest or sympathy to entitle them to receive it." It is useless to force this or that idea, this or that piece of knowledge, on the minds of our pupils; all we do must be tried by the ultimate test—the test of life. That test is contained in the plain question: Are the pursuits and the exercises followed and employed in my school likely to be carried on by my pupils after they have bid me good-bye? Will the habits I have given them remain? Are the ideas I have given them seeds that will grow, and produce fruit for them in their adult life? Have I, above all, given them "the expansive joy of soul over work," that is the source of all fine art? It would be good work, and work enough, for a professor of education if he could show us, in each subject, how the *Didactic* could be kept out of the teaching of it, and how learning might be made a vigorous excursion, with fresh woods and pastures new, for the dawn of every new morning.

But, I have said that the chief use of Professors of Education is to find some true and living method for the teaching of those things which have to be taught. These professors—when we have created them, and set them to work—will not ask whether the subject they are examining is taught in primary or in secondary schools. They will think only of the subject itself, and of the mind that is to feed on it.

Let us see what they would enquire into, and what they would teach.

(i) They would give us, first of all, a fit rendering into English tastes and English habits of the true and living CONCEPTIONS of FRIEDRICH FRÖBEL. They would tell us how the powers and activities of the growing infant may be called into most pleasurable and healthy exercise; and how

the senses—eye, hand, and ear—may be most successfully trained, here in England. From the birth of the child they would show how a healthy balance and reciprocity may be established and maintained between all its forces. They would begin at the beginning; they would teach the mother as well as the child. I do not mean that it would be wise to introduce a conscious element where nature has carefully wrapped us in unconsciousness; but that—through the mother, who is conscious—the thinking educator would guide all the unconscious powers to a happy and healthy end.

(ii) The child comes, in no long time, to try by means of symbols to attach himself to the general intellectual life of his fellow-men; and he tries to make out how they communicate with each other on paper. He tries to learn to read. Well, when he comes to the READING of ENGLISH, his faculties of eyes and ears are more amazed than those of the players' audience in Hamlet. He expects the symbol to be the same for each sound he utters; and the sound to be the same for each symbol he sees. He expects this; he finds something exactly the reverse. The two rules, which each code of signals ought to observe, are broken at every step; and his sense of consistency is outraged in every line of printing. Instead of learning to recognise twenty-six letters, he has to accustom himself to more than one hundred eccentric and most diversified habits of old English dialects, and of prejudiced or careless scribes. The consequence is, that his success in learning to read is long delayed; and it is highly probable that his faculties are permanently weakened, and his impressions much blunted in the effort. Many able men wish to alter the notation of our language altogether. In the meantime, could not a thinker on education—who had no other subject to avert his thoughts—give to the young children of this country a sound and attractive method of learning to read?

(iii) The things the child sees daily around him—the clouds in the sky, the running streams, the rising and falling

of the tides, the fall of the rain, the coming of Spring, the return of Winter, the colours of the earth—these and many more the child wants some account, some explanation of. He hears, too, that men build cities, and make railways, and fetch and carry goods of different sorts, from one part of the round planet to another; and he wants to know the how and the why, and what sets all these people and things in motion. The answers to these numerous questions are contained—or are supposed to be contained—in the school-subject called GEOGRAPHY. But, what have the traditions of school-practice—the ever-pressing necessities of school-drill and school-routine—turned this interesting and attractive subject into? Into masses of gritty topographical gossip; long lists of names, which have to be attached to black dots upon maps; wildernesses of unconnected facts; and mounds of useless and unwholesome statistics. All this is "given" by the teacher as an explanation of the beautiful and wonderful phenomena of the external world. The child takes it in. But no curiosity precedes the process; no wonder accompanies it; no exercise of judgment is stimulated by it; no imagination or sympathetic power is quickened by it. The memory—the volitional memory alone—is the power called into play. The subject called geography occupied the splendid powers of a Humboldt and a Ritter, of an Agassiz and a Réclus; but, the grinding necessities of the modern English school-room pulverise it into mind-choking dust. And here the universities themselves aid in the deterioration of the educative processes. Oxford and Cambridge have, in their local examinations, taken to examining secondary schools. In the papers they set, they ask fearful and deadening questions. Then, if you say to the examiners, "Why do you set such dull questions in geography, it is only paltry topography after all?" They reply, "Oh! we must examine in what is actually taught." Then, if you go to the teachers, and ask them why they do not rise to a truer and more interesting way of treating the world in which we live, their answer is, "Oh! you know, we must satisfy the examiners; we must

prepare only what our pupils will be examined in. Just look at the papers for the last eight or ten years: they are all like that!" And thus it comes about that our poor pupils are ground between the upper and the nether millstone.

But, a Professor of Education, who had studied the subject and its relations to young minds slowly and tranquilly, with a detached and yet a sympathetic mind, would be able to give us the true steps which lead to a right interpretation of the phenomena of the world in space—would put a practical perspective into the courses of lessons—would show us how much can be done by appeals to the eye by means of pictures, diagrams, maps, and models—how and where certain parts of natural philosophy must be called in to explain—what books of travel and of description can be employed to give solidity and basis to the children's conceptions of a country or of a climate.

(iv) HISTORY is taught in most of our schools. With how many pupils does it remain a desire and a passion after they have left school? Do they want to read more history? Do they go with pleasure from the history of their own country—which they are supposed to know—to the history of France, of Germany, of Italy, and of other great European countries? There is no subject in the world so interesting as history; but, from what I have seen, I doubt much whether our present teaching of it is successful in one case out of a hundred. We are so greedy, and so premature, that we try to force a connected narrative of events, which stretch over about two thousand years, upon children of eight or nine years of age. I remember inspecting one public secondary school, where six different histories of England were in use in six different forms. . . . It is very clear to me that young people below eighteen cannot understand the true relations of political causes and effects, and that they have little interest for them. The biographies of great and famous men and women are what come home to the young; and these should be the nuclei round which our historical knowledge should gradually

gather and become crystallised. It should be the easiest thing in the world to find matter in history that would have a kindly attraction for every age; but, for want of guidance, we have strayed into the use of the driest abridgments, which teach nobody anything. Again, many teachers, who have no feeling for historical perspective, put as much stress upon unimportant details as on the greatest events. There is work enough here for one man to show us how to teach history rightly, and how to create a taste for the endless pursuit of the study. The University Professors of History might themselves tell us what are the most interesting and attractive parts of history, and what are most suitable for the young at school.

(v) The young teacher, who may have to face the task of teaching a FOREIGN LANGUAGE, has little guidance in his work. He feels himself cast amidst the multiplicity of systems, and the crowd of French and German books—all of them claiming to be better than all the others. Well, then, he wants some person or persons to examine, and to discuss the different plans and methods in use, and to tell him how far this or that method is in harmony with the nature of the language, and with the natural growth of the mind in its power of assimilating new words and phrases. He wants to have Locke's and Marcel's, and Prendergast's and Nasmith's ideas examined and valued. How much can philology help in the acquirement of a Teutonic language, like German? What are the most prevailing idioms and terms of expression? What are the easiest and most attractive books? How far, and how usefully may interlinear translations be employed? What parts of the literature of each language are most useful for the mental culture of young people? How may the ear be best trained in getting at the ear-language, which is something quite different from the eye-language? How may the road from the perfectly easy to the very difficult be best engineered? How far ought composition in a language to go along with the reading of it? These and many other questions can be profitably answered only by the

person who has studied the language on the one hand, and the conditions under which it must be taught on the other.

(vi) We have adopted LITERATURE—the literature of our own country—as a subject in our schools; and very rightly. But here, again, the demon of greed and encyclopædism has destroyed, or gone near to destroy, the usefulness and the charm of the study for our pupils. In hundreds, if not thousands, of schools, a book like Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Primer of English Literature' is put into the hands of the pupils; and they "get it up." Mr. Stopford Brooke's little book is a very good and a very charming book; but it is no more a primer than the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' is a primer. It is a series of pleasant recollections and genial criticisms of books that Mr. Stopford Brooke has himself read; and it is very pleasant reading for those who have also read the books of which he treats. But it is put into the hands of young people who never even saw these books, and whose acquaintance with literature is just as large and as first-hand as the acquaintance with the continent of Europe of a man who has never been out of his native village. Hence the young learners take into their minds a large number of formulæ and of abstract critical conceptions which have no underlying data; they play with counters, the value of which they do not understand; and they get a series of lessons in intellectual imposture. But a thoughtful and considerate professor of education would survey the whole of English literature and tell us what parts were fittest for what ages, and would make experiments in which the pupils should be his colleagues, and the parts selected would be selected by the process of natural selection. The teacher would supply all the knowledge of the life of the writer and of the age he lived in that is necessary; and the pupils would form a first acquaintance and even friendship with the writers' works, and would read largely in them. After that would come the question of schools of writers; and after that, a survey of the whole cyclopædic growth of

English literature. But this last is rather a subject to be studied at a university.

(vii) Let us suppose that our young teacher has to teach the CLASSICAL LANGUAGES and their LITERATURES. He will find more guidance here from the labours and methods of his predecessors ; but still not enough. Perhaps he would like to employ the method recommended by Roger Ascham in his 'Scholemaster.' Dr. Johnson, a man with the broadest bottom of common sense, says of this book : "It contains, perhaps, the best advice that was ever given for the study of languages." And both Mr. J. E. B. Mayor and Mr. George Long * agree that "this book sets forth the only sound method of acquiring a dead language." But the young teacher cannot lean upon the mere *ipse dixit* of even the ablest scholar ; and he wants to know why and how. He may further have to ask himself the very practical question, how much of Ascham's method can be made to dovetail with the practices of a public school ? . . . If he has to teach beginners, he would like to ask some thoughtful person whether he might not teach the language itself instead of making his pupils get up all the rules of the 'Public Schools' Latin Primer,' a book that does not allure the young to the love of the Latin tongue. Or, if he has to teach the higher literature of Greece and Rome, he needs some one he can come to and ask what apparatus and appendages, what needful stock of drawings, diagrams, and casts he must have to make living to the eye the manners and customs, the plastic arts, the architecture—the whole life, so far as is possible, of the Greeks and Romans. Much as has been said and written about the best ways of teaching Greek and Latin, very little is known, and precious unrecoverable years of many thousands of boys are wasted for want of true methods and reasonable plans. Professors of education might very profitably study the economy of teaching Greek and Latin : tell the young teacher what parts are most essential, what parts should be taken first ; how most quickly and surely to get his pupils to the reading

* See Quick's 'Educational Reformers,' p. 23.

of the languages themselves ; what parts of the grammar are most necessary to preserve the young reader from error ; how best to arrange the most usual words and phrases of the language to enable the learner to compose in it as soon as possible ; what authors are the best for what ages ; and many other such things.

(viii) The want of good guidance from above has been most conspicuous in our school-treatment of OUR OWN LANGUAGE. Here is a field of wonder and interest which the teacher might have been delighted to take his pupils about in. The history of our language is extremely interesting ; its habits and phenomena are most striking and attractive ; and, along the pathways in the forest of our own speech, we come to so many other languages which open new vistas of new interest. They are all around us, these phenomena ; one may begin anywhere—one cannot go wrong, the field is so rich ; any sentence of six words can give occasion for a lesson that will enchain the attention of a class for a whole hour. But, instead of availing ourselves of the sources of interest which lie under our very noses, we take a course that is doubly ridiculous. First of all the ordinary teacher ignores the language itself, and puts into the hands of his pupils what is called a grammar. The ordinary grammar does not teach the history and growth of our language, or show its connection with other languages, on the scientific basis of a sound philology ; it does not show how the small remnants of inflection which we still have are survivals of a time when our tongue was a synthetic language ; it does not show the relations of grammar or the testing powers of grammar to the different kinds of expression in prose and in verse. The ordinary English grammar takes for granted, first of all, that its English readers are foreigners ; and then it sets to work to treat the language in a formular fashion on the basis of the categories and schemata of the Latin grammar. In addition to this, it makes a large number of common-place or unverifiable remarks on idioms ; gives the poor boy a number of rules to learn by heart ; dazes him with modes of analysis (a simple and useful art that can be

learned in an hour or two); or puzzles him with wire-drawn distinctions. Then, when the boy is supposed to have learned all this "grammar," he is not told that all this has to do with the language itself. He has never been taught to look at the actual phenomena of the language; he has only been forced to read what other people say of it—those other people having never either studied its history or looked at it with their own eyes. The boy has been carefully dressed for dinner; but no dinner has been dressed for him. A professor of education with an unprejudiced mind might show us all these blunders; might warn us against these traditional but barren paths; might point us to the fields where true and life-giving mental food is to be found. The grammar-writer (and his pupil, too) is, in the words of Goethe,—

> "Wie ein Thier auf dürrer Heide,
> Von einem bösen Geist im Kreis herumgeführt
> Und rings umher liegt schöne grüne Weide."

And even the simple business of teaching a child to write clear English is overlaid by masses of traditional errors, which keep the young teacher from seeing the very easy goal that he has to make for,

> "Es erben sich Gesetz' und Rechte,
> Wie eine ew'ge Krankheit fort."

In one word, by far the larger part of our teaching of English tends simply to error, to weakness, and to confusion of mind.

To put the whole question more simply and broadly: Who can tell us how to train our pupils best in the powers of *Observation*, of *Judgment*, of *Memory*, and of *Imagination?* All of these, except the third, are, for the most part, kept outside the school-room. Who shall tell us what a good teacher is, and how he may be trained for his delicate and important duties?

The good teacher needs to develop many different powers.

(i) He must be able to *question* skilfully. *Prudens quæstio dimidium scientiæ*, says Bacon; a well-put question is the half of knowledge. The good teacher must be able to question an idea into a boy, and then out of him; must be able to keep his class heartily alive by a perpetual fire of questions; must so keep off dulness and vacuity, both in himself and in his pupils. This art of questioning is a true intellectual gymnastic; and it is no exaggeration to say that the best teacher is he who can ask the largest number of questions on the smallest amount of given matter.

(ii) The good teacher must be trained to the *Art of Speaking;* the art of making a clear and connected statement; the art of telling a story, of giving an account—historical or other, in the clearest and most telling way. This will give him readiness of mind; a power of clear and adequate expression, of precise statement, and of sufficing explanation. Still more needful is it for the good teacher.

(iii) To be trained in the practice of *Induction*. Why should not this art, which has won for us so much in the field of science, be brought into the school-room and made to play its part there? Let us hear what Dr. Bain says:* "It is one of the delicate arts of an accomplished instructor to lay before the pupils a set of facts pointing to a conclusion, and to leave them to draw the conclusion for themselves. Exactly to hit the mean between a leap too small to have any merit, and one too wide for the ordinary pupil, is a fine adjustment and a great success. All this, however, belongs to the occasional luxuries, the *bonbons* of teaching, and cannot be included under the daily routine." Now, this is admirably said, except the last part of it. The English language itself, which is all around us, affords very large scope for the work of induction, of classification, and of drawing conclusions; the Latin and Greek languages also; and all the sciences of observation. "Such processes would be inconvenient in the school-room." Certainly. But professors of education would exist for the purpose of removing

* 'Educatiociencen as a S,' pp 94 and 95.

inconveniences and getting over difficulties—of finding for every power of the soul and mind full play within its walls. As regards the processes of induction being "occasional luxuries, the *bonbons* of teaching," all I have time to say here and now is, that I look upon them as wholesome daily food, as ordinary bread and butter.

Once more (iv), the good teacher must cultivate to the utmost his *Analytic Powers*. The power of rightly dividing the word of truth—of analysing a conception into its smallest atoms, of setting out the largest number of the smallest steps in a mental process, and thus of intensifying the consciousness upon each and every element in a subject, and so of, as it were, creating and growing attention in the minds of his pupils—cannot well be over-rated in value. Its practical value can be seen at once in its application to that chaotic border-land, where dwell the giants Difficulty and Mistake. The good teacher who has trained his powers of analysis will, when his pupil brings him a difficulty in a Latin author, soon find out whether the difficulty arises from the pupil's ignorance of the words, or of the inflections, or from the unusualness of certain combinations, or from the insufficiency of practice in this or that formation, and a consequent weakness of habit. The good teacher, moreover, ought to be able to tell the source of every mistake made by his pupils ; just as the good physician, in his careful diagnosis, knows whether the beginning of evil is in the heart or in the digestion, or in the lungs, or where else.

All this, it might be said, and more, might be got from books—from the literature of education and teaching ; and there is no need for a body of professors to show us these things. But, in the first place, the literature of education does not, and cannot show us how to teach ; in the next place, the literature of education in this country is particularly poor. While, in Germany, we can count books—good, solid books, the outcome of thought upon experience—by the hundred, here we have to count them by ones. A book like Mr. Fitch's 'Lectures on Teaching' stands almost

alone. Most of the books we have would not be looked at by a vigorous-minded young man who had resolved upon giving himself to teaching. I opened one the other day; and this is what I found: "Education is invariably promoted by the gathering of suitable associations around the subject of study." Most true; and travelling is made a great deal easier by having plenty of money in your pocket. The book swarms with platitudes like these. We have in England no book like Dr. Kehr's 'Geschichte der Methodik,' in four volumes; no book like Dr. Schmid's 'Pädagogisches Handbuch'; like Dr. August Vogel's 'Systematische Encyclopädie der Pädagogik'; not even like M. Buisson's 'Dictionnaire de Pédagogie et d'Instruction Primaire.' If a German teacher wants to know what books, or what apparatus, are best for the work he has in hand, he goes to one of the books I have mentioned; he finds a list of such books, with a clear critical notice of their contents, and he selects that which seems to suit his own genius.

But I must stop.

I will put the question I have been trying to answer in another way. What can the universities do for education? What can they do for the processes that are going on daily in our schools? A university is a place for study and research; but it is also a place for distribution. It tries to distribute first-hand knowledge—to give that knowledge, along with the germs of further growth in it; and it tries to give to its alumni the best culture. Can we not find within its walls men who will give their whole lives to observing and thinking about the different processes that go by the name of education, just as we have men who give their lives to medicine, or to anatomy, or to physical science?

Mr. Fitch, in the *Contemporary Review* for December, 1876, says, "The problem, how to get the best and truest results from school-work in the shortest time, with the minimum of friction and the maximum of joyous spontaneous effort, is at present unsolved in the secondary schools of England. It never will be solved unless the at-

tention of aspirants to the teacher's office is as systematically directed to what philosophy and experience have to teach on the subject, as that of the young medical student is now directed to the principles of physiology and anatomy, to the phenomena of disease, and to the conditions of health."

The universities might now at length say: We will study how all this should be done—under what conditions, and how it may best be done; we will begin at the beginning, and we will not shut out from the scope of our inquiries any kind of mental procedure whatever. We will test the experience of teachers, and try to make the best experience of all teachers available for each one—and that the youngest. We will study methods, and try to make our methods living. We will show the best means of having clear perceptions, of forming clear and adequate conceptions, and of coming to true and full judgments. We will show how a teacher may make his school a scene of search, of creative work—of happy search, and of happy creative work. We will not merely examine schools; we will guide, and teach, and inspire them. We will further produce a body of literature, which will inform the young teacher on all that he requires to know; and we will do this, not by fits and starts, but in a systematic, persistent, and vigorous fashion. And, while we hope to teach the teacher, and show him how to form the young and growing minds of England, we hope, at the same time, to learn as much from our pupils as they learn from us. As we try to connect ourselves with and to be of use to all the learned professions, this profession of teaching—which shapes the intelligence of the nation at each remove, and lies at the basis of all the other professions—shall now be our special and our sacred care.

Professors of education, then, stand for METHOD and for METHODS—for a careful search after the new, and a frank criticism of the old; for first-handness in thought, culture, and knowledge; for fidelity in distribution; for the introduction of the growing and receiving mind to all that is best in art, in science, in history, and in expression.

The following paper by Professor Laurie was then read by Mr. C. R. Hodgson (Hon. Sec. of the Section) :—

ON PROFESSORSHIPS AND LECTURESHIPS ON EDUCATION.

By Professor S. S. LAURIE.

WHEN I was invited to read a paper on "Professorships and Lectureships on Education," I concluded that my thesis was not so much the desirableness of such professorships and lectureships generally, as of instituting professorships and lectureships in our universities. I certainly was entitled to presume that a subject which had engaged the thoughts of Plato, Aristotle, Quintilian, Lucian, Locke, Milton, and Kant was in itself worthy of investigation, and of being professed as a special department of philosophy ; and above all, that it was a fit subject of study for those who proposed to devote their lives to the work of educating others.

Let me remind my audience that professional training in the sphere of primary instruction is already an accomplished fact in the State training colleges ; and, though doubtless susceptible of improvement, it is a universally recognised success. Let me also inform them that the philosophy and history of education is professed in many German and American universities. The question still under discussion, and in my opinion now ripe for settlement, is the philosophic and historical study of education in the universities of Great Britain, and the imposing of such a course of study on all who intend to become middle and upper schoolmasters, as an essential part of their preparation for their life-work.

It is true now, as it has been in the past and will be in the future, that some of the best teachers have never read or heard a word of educational philosophy or method. Such men possess that happy combination of powers fitting

them for the doing of a specific work, which we call genius. Such natural endowment we find in every department of human activity. In the arts of painting and sculpture this gift of genius is conspicuous. None the less have we schools of art, because we believe that even the greatest genius is bettered by being placed, when young, in possession of the inheritance of tradition. No man, however great his powers, should be allowed to waste them in finding out anew for himself the mere commonplaces of his art.

Teaching or instructing is also an art. All admit this. In instructing, the individual teacher is supreme over his pupils. Nine-tenths are wholly dependent on him for what they may know and for the manner in which they reach their knowledge, while the remaining one-tenth—the select few—are very largely his debtors. All depend on him for the *manner* of their knowing, that is to say, whether it be mainly through memory, their memory becoming a storehouse of unorganised facts and of conventional ready-made opinions (which through mere mental habit finally harden into irrational convictions), or whether it be through the living activity of their own reason. It is in the evoking of this living activity that the great art of instruction consists. Is it possible to do this? If so, what is the way of doing it? Even the most unthinking of the teaching profession will grant that there is *some* way, and that in this, as in all else, Nature has a process. If any still hold that there is no process, they condemn themselves to the ignoble and unworthy occupation of making boys learn things by rote, and inflicting some sort of physical suffering if they fail to do so. The man who with such views becomes a teacher must be a very poor creature.

I think we may nowadays assume that even the most sceptical among schoolmasters repudiate this low conception of their work; and, were it only to save their self-respect, will claim that it is their privilege as well as their duty to open and strengthen the intelligence of their pupils through instruction in the various subjects of a school curriculum. Now the most elementary condition of this kind of instruc-

tion, it will be admitted, is that boys shall understand what they are learning. Grant this, and we grant all; for the human mind has a *way* whereby alone it can understand anything, a way as certain and as exclusive of other possible ways as our way of seeing, which is with our bodily eyes alone, and not with our elbows. It is not necessary, fortunately, that we should be conscious of our way of seeing in order that we may see, or our way of understanding in order that we may understand. But if our bodily seeing could be improved by another, and depended largely on lessons given us in seeing, it would, I presume, be desirable at least, if not necessary, that the eye-trainer should be aware of the conditions of seeing and the way in which we see. If there be, then, a way of understanding, instruction *must* proceed according to that way if it is to be instruction, and not mere mechanical memory work. Doubtless a boy may be brought to learn by rote what he does not understand. This is the Chinese plan, and is also, I fear, not unknown in our public schools in England. The expectation is that he will understand it some day. But if the object be ultimately the understanding of what is learnt, why should we not begin with this and make sure of it? I do not contend for the opinion that a boy need fully understand all that he is taught, but he is competent to understand all that he ought to be taught sufficiently to make it fit into his reasoning processes and into the already acquired furniture of his mind. There is understanding and understanding. A boy of fifteen may learn and, in a sense, understand Wordsworth's 'Poet's Epitaph,' but he does so in a different sense from that in which Mr. Matthew Arnold understands it. Understanding, then, being the end we, as instructors, have in view, and there being a *way* whereby a human being understands, we truly instruct only if we follow that way. Now, a statement of that way is a statement of method, and as it is further a statement of the process of intelligizing, it is psychology in its most

interesting and suggestive form, for it is an account of the intellectual powers as living and acting, and not merely as dissected and tabulated.

The instructor, then, ought to know the general process by which we know—in other words he must know the psychology of the intelligence. This, I think, must be conceded.

But not only is there a general method, but there are particular methods. Method is essentially the same for all subjects, but its application to the various subjects of instruction is not always obvious. I have seen a teacher teach arithmetic in accordance with sound method, and make the most glaring mistakes when he gave a lesson in grammar; and again, I have seen geography well taught, and language taught by the same man in a hopelessly ignorant way. And why? Because the teacher—I refer now specially to those trained in normal schools, where methods form an essential part of the course—had understood for himself the method which he had been taught to follow in one subject, but had not comprehended the application of the method to another subject. It might be that he had seen lessons well given in the one subject, and not in the other. And why did he make this blunder? Because he had not the key to all methods, which is to be found in general method alone. He had, in short, no psychology, and he was, consequently, a mere mechanical method-monger, having no living source of method in himself; wanting, therefore, in elasticity, in confidence, in thought, in the liberty wherewith philosophy makes the teacher free. Particular methods, then, have to be taught, but they are dead and barren if we have not breathed into them the spirit of philosophy.

But not only is there a way of instruction, there is also an order in time—an order in which each subject of instruction is to be begun—each part of each subject—each lesson of each part. All this depends ultimately on the order of the growth of mind, and here the instructor is brought face to face with physiological conditions.

Accordingly, the instructor must study the elements of physiology, especially in their relation to the nervous system, by which we feel, and think, and do.

Then come considerations as to the manner of the teacher in instructing, the quantity of instruction, and the circumstances favourable and unfavourable to instruction. Here, again, we touch physiological as well as moral conditions.

Still further, we have to consider the end we have in view in instructing, and, as determined by this, the materials of instruction. How can such supreme questions be rationally approached save in relation to a philosophy of life? Here, indeed, all *must* philosophise, either consciously or unconsciously.

And just at this point, where we begin to consider ends, we perceive that we are as yet only at the threshold of the subject ; for we are now passing from the work of the mere instructor to that of the educator. The whole moral and spiritual field opens out before us. Were there no schools and no teachers, we might be content to look on passively while a boy's hereditary predispositions and natural environment moulded him. But we are not at liberty as educators to do this without committing professional suicide. If the delicate and complex task of giving a character and tendency to the inner life of the soul be truly ours (and if it be not, then what *is* our task ?), surely it is our duty to study the conditions of the growth of the moral and spiritual life. This, again, is psychology in its deepest philosophical relations.

Those who concur with what has been said hold also, as a matter of course, that the future teacher and educator should be prepared for his task on the lines I have indicated ; and that for this preparation professors of the subject are needed. Those who deny that there are principles in education, who think that "rule of thumb" governs all, will, of course, fight shy of professors of education. The question, accordingly, of professorships of education depends entirely on the view we take of education itself,

and hence my way of approaching the subject prescribed to me. Is education a subject for inquiry? Is it a subject at all? If it be a subject at all, it is manifestly a department of philosophy. As such it claims a place in the faculties of philosophy in our universities.

And just as philosophy itself is enriched by the history of opinion, so is the subject of education enriched by the history of theories, of national systems, of scholastic experiments. Thus are many errors marked out for avoidance, and many truths illustrated and confirmed.

For my own part I do not see how the vexed questions are to be settled except scientifically. Look at the programme of this Conference and you will see how many subjects are still under debate, and there are a hundred others. How am I honestly to settle the question, say, of Latin *versus* Elementary Science, unless I can show how the one acts on the human mind and how the other acts? And so with numerous other questions which are now asked, and which must arise in the future before the day is reached when the State will recognise education as its primary and supreme function.

Professors of the philosophy, art, and history of education, then, are, I hold, needed, and all aspirants to the office of schoolmaster should be required to study under them for a time. There are, however, three objections which are worthy of consideration, and to which I shall briefly advert.

First. The study of education in its philosophy and history will, some fear, convert our future teachers into theorists. The very reverse of this is the result of the study of a subject scientifically. The untrained teacher of active mind and philanthropic impulses will always become a theorist of some sort; but the youth who has been led to think out the grounds of his professional action scientifically, and has been brought face to face with the history of his subject, is proof against the tendency to theorise in the vulgar sense of this word. He has, on the contrary, acquired a scientific habit of mind with reference to the subject of education.

Surely the most conservative of head masters prefer men under them who think, and who think their work worth thinking about. If they think wisely, they are pursuing education as a science; and is it not better that in this department of professional activity, as well as in that of medicine, a scientific basis should be laid during the period of professional preparation? Did the organisation of medical education produce theorists in the vulgar sense, or extinguish them?

Secondly. I have seen it objected that there can be no guarantee that the system of philosophy which furnishes a basis of principle for teachers will be sound. It may be Sensationalism at one time, Kantianism at another, and again Hegelianism. But are not the same objections to be urged against academic prelections in all subjects that interest and cultivate the human mind, and endeavour to answer its never-ceasing questions? Take moral philosophy for example, or metaphysics, or even logic. And what shall we say of professorial academic instruction in political economy or history? We believe that these subjects afford a discipline, and train to thought, if taught by an able man; and we take our chance of the rest.

Thirdly. We are told that teaching is so much a mere art that practice for a few months in a good school under a competent head master is more beneficial than any possible course of lectures. I concur with these objections so far that I think practical instruction in a model school a necessary part of a course of study for the teaching profession. But practice in a school alone can never make anything but a mechanic. The element of thought, of knowledge, of principle, of science, is wanting, unless, indeed, the youth provides all this for himself. I have said above that practice, even when accompanied with the study of particular methods of instruction, fails to produce the educator: how much less can mere practice without methods do so? We have again an analogy in the medical profession. Clinical instruction is an essential part of a

surgeon's preparation, but who nowadays would maintain that this would suffice without a knowledge of the sciences which make practice scientific? And yet there can be no doubt that surgeons could be turned out, after clinical study only, fit for all the ordinary work of the profession.

Further, we are told that our public schools have such admirable methods, and so noble a tradition in teaching, that young men who enter them as assistants, and who have themselves been public schoolboys, are "to the manner born," and if they have anything to learn will soon learn it by watching the head master, and submitting themselves to his advice. That the young assistant will by these means acquire the habit of his school, whatever that may be, I do not doubt. But is that habit a good one? Has the head master himself studied philosophy and method? Is he not simply repeating his predecessors? Or, is he perchance inspired? No one will be found at this time of day to defend Keatism as it flourished at Eton, fagging in the forms it assumed at certain public schools, and other brutalities which brought shame on the name of Christian, not to speak of educator. I do not suppose any one, save a survival in some grammar school situated in some region remote and melancholy and slow, will defend the method of acquiring the Latin grammar by imposing the learning of Latin rules. I do not suppose that any competent head master now maintains that the sole engine of moral discipline is the constant rod. I do not suppose that ignorance of geography, of history, of English, of the facts and laws of Nature, will now be regarded as an essential characteristic of the best English education. These things are mostly of the past. But why? To what is all this due? To writers on education, to the progress of society generally, and to one or two distinguished practical educators, such as Arnold. Were Arnold alive now, and were he to initiate a course of lectures on education at Oxford, would our present head masters not think it desirable that their future assistants should sit at his feet for a couple of terms? There is no Arnold now, but Nature repeats a type, though it never

repeats an individual. The optical law, whereby an object becomes smaller the further it is removed from the eye, is inverted in the case of men. The distance to which death removes them makes them larger, not smaller. You may have confidence that God did not exhaust Himself in the pedagogic field when he made Arnold. There was still some energy left for the production of men who could teach others to teach, and inspire them with the noble aims of true educators of youth. Grant that, through the influences to which I have alluded, we are now better than in the past, yet surely it is the insanity of self-satisfaction to conclude that now at this time of speaking, in August 1884, our public schools and middle schools, and primary schools, are at last perfect in their aims, methods, and discipline. Even if they were, would it not be desirable that the young aspirant should be introduced to the principles which underlie and explain and vindicate that perfection, and to the instructive history whereby that perfection has been happily reached, that so he may be guarded against degeneracy, and that a school of education may preserve for the future all that is good in the present?

Had Roger Ascham's College at Cambridge founded a lectureship on the first two books of Quintilian, and on Ascham's own work, and done nothing more, the whole character of English public school education would have been revolutionised more than 200 years ago. We should have been as great a nation measured by the standards of imperial power and wealth, but our citizens would have had a better use of their brains, greater love of truth, more open minds, more kindly hearts, more of wisdom, justice, and righteousness. If I did not believe this, I should give up the whole question of "how to educate" as vain and empty talk; but I should have at the same time to give up my belief in humanity and in the possibility of a true civilisation.

Finally, "we admit (I understand one head master to say) that it is desirable that young teachers should study books on education—nay, even that the *élite* of the pedagogic

world, the young master who has been a public school boy, should condescend to read ; but as a matter of fact he *does* read." My answer is that he does *not* read. A return of the books on education, not looked into, but carefully read by the masters of public schools, who are, according to this gentleman, *supra educationem*, as the Emperor Sigismund was, *supra grammaticam*, would surprise him. Ask the publishers of books on education how many sell among the 50,000 teachers of England. But if it be so desirable that the said young masters should read, and if it be necessary, as a mere matter of professional decency, to claim for them that they *do* read, it is not surely too much to ask that their reading should be put beyond all question, by requiring them to read under the direction of a professor, and to listen to his prelections before they plunge into their life work. In other subjects we do not leave such things to chance. A clergyman should know Moral Philosophy and Church History ; but cognate as these subjects are to his clerical functions, we do not leave him free *not* to read them in any course of preparation for the ministry which even affects to be adequate.

Grant, then, that the schoolmaster is an educator, and that an educator should study education ; the further question remains, Where should the professors of education be placed ? I answer, where the future teachers of all schools except the primary receive, or ought to receive, the rest of their instruction — viz., in our universities. This I might advocate on grounds of mere convenience. But apart from this consideration, I hold that our universities, as the homes of science and philosophy, claim this highest of all applied sciences—itself a science—as part of their work. It is their duty, as well as their privilege, to guide the thought of the nation. I shall not surely be told that the question of the growth and life of the human mind, and the way in which character is built up, are subjects unworthy to stand side by side on the academic platform with inquiries into the growth and life of molluscs, mosses, and crayfish, or the making of bridges and engines! Schoolmasters at

least will not tell me so! They will not thus flaunt in the face of the public their self-contempt! Let me add that the influence of such philosophic and historical studies as bear on education, in making effectual for its great ends the school system of the country, gives them, on mere grounds of utility, the strongest of claims on our Universities and on the Government. In our present educational system we have a very costly instrument. The study of education at our universities would teach us how best to use that instrument for the moral and spiritual advancement of the nation.

The *élite* of our training college primary schoolmasters also should be required, or at least encouraged, to attend a professorial or academic course before entering on the duties of the school. This is already partially the case in Scotland.

The practical question remains: Suppose we had such chairs at all our university seats, and in connection with them revived the ancient *licentia docendi*, or licentiateship in education, how are we to secure students, and so make them of practical utility and not mere endowments of research? Here many difficulties present themselves; but there is only one way of finally overcoming them all; and that is by a Teachers' Registration Act, which will virtually * limit the profession to two classes of teachers—those who hold a Government certificate, and those who hold a university licentiateship. A licentiateship granted by certain corporate bodies, such as the College of Preceptors in England, and the Educational Institute of Scotland, might also be recognised. Were such a law passed, the cause of education—middle and upper

* I say "virtually," because, for this generation, at least, a Registration Act should restrict itself to the qualifications of teachers of State-aided, Foundation, and Grammar Schools. The rest would soon follow. One clause affirming this, and another clause declaring the conditions of Registration, and a third recognising existing teachers (within certain limits) would make a brief but adequate Bill. There would be two classes in the Register—those who held an academic degree, and those who did not.

class education—would receive as powerful a stimulus as primary instruction received from the Acts of 1870 and 1872. Meanwhile, and as a provisional measure, let the head masters of the great public schools publicly announce that, in making appointments, they will allow due weight to the educational diplomas of Cambridge and London.

In conclusion, I would ask the teachers of Great Britain to say in what sense their occupation is a profession if it does not demand professional preparation? The dignity and status of the scholastic occupation have hitherto been borrowed entirely from the clerical profession. But in proportion as laymen obtain scholastic appointments, to that extent must education find a philosophical basis for itself if it is to hold its own among liberal professions. I would also point out that as that philosophical basis is the same for infant-school teaching and university teaching alike, its universal recognition would weld together the whole body of teachers in one vast organization, having common aims and common aspirations. The primary schoolmaster and the primary school would thus be raised to a higher level; lines of demarcation would be less strongly marked, for the work of one grade of the profession would then be seen to pass insensibly into that of the others, and the humblest pupil in the humblest infant school would find himself, through his teacher, a part of a great moral and intellectual organisation. At present, *subjects of instruction* now mark off teachers into castes: the recognition of a professional basis would reveal that when a primary schoolmistress teaches the alphabet, and a "senior classic" teaches Sophocles, they have both, if they rightly understand their work, the same aims, the difference between them consisting mainly in the age of their pupils, and the material which they use to attain their end. None of our institutions would benefit more largely by recognising this fact than the great English public schools.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. HENKEL stated that Doctor Stoy had for a quarter of a century been a director of a university training college, and also of a young ladies' training school in Jena, and he therefore wished to appear as a practitioner, and not as a propounder of theories.

The Rev. R. H. QUICK said that he did not, as Dr. Rigg supposed, ignore our own writers on theory. What he wished to say was this—that there was already a great deal of thought on education very well put in many books, some English, some Continental, and that what we wanted was a professor who would collect those thoughts and co-ordinate them. Most of the writers whom Dr. Rigg had named he knew, and valued highly, and he might mention that he could hardly have forgotten Locke, as he had had the pleasure of editing him himself. Locke's book had been a great force in influencing theory throughout Europe. M. Compayré had lately published a new translation of the 'Thoughts' into French; and they had present that day Dr. von Sallwürk, who was Locke's German translator. The thing was to bring all recorded thought and principles to bear on the problems of the day, and this function a professor of education would be best able to discharge. Mr. Bowen had referred to chemistry. It was quite true that chemistry could not be studied without the laboratory; but if the experiments were carried on without the scientific spirit and were valued merely for results—*i.e.*, for producing pretty colours or startling explosions, it might be necessary to call the students' attention from practice to principles. It was the same in education. They already had a vast amount of practice without any thought of principles; and the point of his paper had been that we ought now to turn our attention to the theoretical side of education, which we had hitherto neglected. One speaker, Miss Cooper, seemed to agree with him entirely, but he

felt bound to mention a fact that might account for this. The gist of his paper was consciously taken from what Miss Cooper had once said to him in conversation; so that it would be more correct to say that he agreed with Miss Cooper.

Dr. MERRIMAN said that teachers had their own subjects to teach, and had no time left for acquiring theory. He suggested that there should be a professorship of education founded in universities, so that the professor might train up under him a set of men who could go forth in the public schools as professors of education, and their business would be not so much to teach this or that subject as to guide the methods of teaching those subjects. He spoke from the experience of a schoolmaster of about a quarter of a century, and he found that when men got involved in teaching they were in danger of losing sight of methods of teaching; and so long as the wheel of education went round, they did not care how it got round so long as it got to the end of the journey. He felt it would be an advantage in schools to have some one whose time could be devoted to methods of teaching, and who could spend his time in going round to the different masters to help them, and suggest how they could teach their subjects. He did not see how such help could be got in England, except as Mr. Quick suggested, by founding a professorship in a university, and in course of time a body of men would be educated who would go forth and do incalculable good to the education of England.

Mr. MANSFORD said the Education Department made it compulsory for a student in a training college to show an adequate acquaintance with the fundamental laws of the human mind, and their application to the art of teaching. It seemed now to be admitted that the same kind of training should be applied to teachers of secondary schools, and the question before them was how it could be done. If he understood rightly the suggestion which had been made, it was that there should be a professorship founded

in the universities, but there was some danger in thus divorcing the teaching of method from the practice of it; and as the hospital and the training of surgeons and doctors had been referred to, he would take that opportunity of reminding the audience that those gentlemen always lectured at a hospital, and were accustomed to take their pupils round the wards to examine the patients; but a professor established in a university would be apart from a school, and it seemed to him he would be very apt to lose sight of the conditions under which the students would be required to teach, and thus his instruction would lose very much of its value. The suggestion which had been thrown out by the gentleman who had just spoken was a very valuable one, and went far to meet the difficulty. It seemed to him that teachers trained as masters of method under professors at the universities might give instruction in several schools, as it was not every school that could afford to set apart one master for mere instruction in method. If such a master could visit three or four, or half-a-dozen schools, his influence might be very considerable, and his employment would thus be rendered practicable.

(The Section adjourned till 2 o'clock.)

After the adjournment the chair was taken by Dr. RIGG.

Mr. F. STORR explained that the subject of his paper was not of his own choice, but had been put into his hands by the Committee. If he had chosen his own subject he thought he should not have taken two texts. However, he had endeavoured as far as he could to combine the two subjects in one.

ON DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES AND THE REGISTRATION OF TEACHERS.

By F. Storr.

I may take it for granted that every member of this section is convinced, not only of the advantage, but of the necessity of training—of training for all teachers from the dominie at Loch Gilphead to the head master of Eton. As long ago as 1870 our educational House of Lords, the Head masters' Conference, passed a resolution affirming this principle; and though nothing has come of this and subsequent resolutions, though a considerable number of head masters have since backed out of it, and explained that they did not mean it to include themselves, it at least marks the progress of public opinion, and proves that the time has come for action of some sort, whether it be individual enterprise or university organisation or public legislation. When people are agreed that a measure is good for all except themselves, we shall not be far wrong in ascribing the objections to personal bias, and disregarding the demurrer as the untenable claim of privileged monopolists. The question then is, how are we to get our trained teachers? to which of the three motive powers that I have indicated are we to trust? Of individual efforts I need say little. They have been tried in the case of men teachers, and have signally failed. By the help of some educational philanthropists, and a few among the more energetic public school masters, a Training College for Middle Class Teachers was started some two years ago. It is presided over by an able and energetic principal; it is attached to a large and flourishing middle-class school; it offers several scholarships to cover the fees of students. The number of students last term in the Finsbury Training College was two. The causes of this failure are not far to seek. The head masters, even those who are honestly

convinced of the advantages of training, have not yet that active faith which leads to works. They have none of them had the courage to say "after a certain date I will appoint no assistant who has not been trained." The younger generation of the class to whom the College specially appeals can rarely afford another year of preparation, and they (or their parents for them) argue very justly, "We can get our £60 or £80 a year at once, and it has yet to be proved that we should command a higher price by waiting another year." Thus the machinery sticks fast; there is, as it were, no fly-wheel to keep it going.

With women the case is more doubtful. The head mistresses are less hidebound by tradition than the head masters, and more receptive of new ideas. The Teachers' Training and Registration Society has established a Training College for Middle Class and High School Teachers, which, if not a city set upon a hill, is, at any rate, a light shining in a dark place. It sends forth each year some twenty-five trained teachers, who obtain posts higher and more lucrative than they would otherwise have obtained. Intending women teachers are beginning to learn that a Skinner Street certificate has a market value. Yet even in this case the growth of the College has been slow; it does not yet attract women with University degrees; the trained women teachers are still in the same ratio to the untrained as the righteous man to the population of the cities of the plain. The *laisser-aller* policy of Mr. H. Spencer will doubtless in time produce a generation of trained teachers, but the millenium will first have come.

We were told this morning by Mr. Quick and by our two professors of education (in this matter, as in elementary education, Scotland has taken the lead and set an example which England is slowly following), what are the duties and functions of a university as regards the training of teachers. All I need here remark is, that the universities cannot supply the motive power. One fact is sufficient to prove this. Since the University of Cambridge established its certificate for teachers, less than a dozen male candi-

dates have taken it (Mr. Browning will tell us the exact number), and at the present moment there is not in our public schools a single master possessing the Cambridge certificate. The number who possess the University of London diploma are still fewer.

There is but one other agency to invoke, and I do not see how those who are convinced of the pressing and instant need of training for teachers can resist the conclusion that here is a clear case for the intervention of the State. I am not forgetful of Lord Reay's eloquent protest against State-regulated education, or of Mr. Thring's solemn and repeated denunciation of the dead hand, but I think that, whatever may be the case with primary education, secondary education has little to fear from this quarter. So far, at any rate, our higher schools have had the benefit of "Anglo-Saxondom's idee," every man doing "just what he d—mn pleases," with what results may be read in the report of the Endowed Schools Commission. If I were proposing that the State should train teachers, there would indeed be good ground for alarm. But, for my part, I see no possible danger in the State ordaining that all teachers shall be trained.

How is the screw to be put on? How is the State to obtain compulsory powers? The Medical Act furnishes a ready answer; and if I were addressing a popular assembly I should dwell on the exact analogy between that profession and our own, and the similar safeguards required in either case. To experts like yourselves this is a commonplace, and I need not labour this point. All that is required in a registration bill is a simple clause—"No unregistered teacher shall henceforth be allowed to plead in any court for the recovery of fees for tuition." As in the case of the doctor, the State has a perfect right to say to the unqualified practitioner, "You may be all you pretend to be, your simples may be more efficacious than those of the Apothecaries Hall, you may be a better bone-setter than Lister or Paget, but you have furnished no proof of it; practise by all means if the public like to employ you, but the State

will not lend you its aid." *Nulla salus extra professionem* is the only safe rule; all outside the profession are *ex vi termini* quacks.

This is the principle which has been generally adopted on the Continent, but I will leave it to the foreign members of the Conference to tell us of foreign legislation.

The history of the movement, as far as England is concerned, may be very shortly disposed of. In 1869, Mr. Forster brought forward, together with his Endowed Schools Bill, a second bill for the organisation of higher education and the registration of teachers other than elementary. This Bill, commonly known as Mr. Forster's Bill No. 2, was withdrawn. Its author discovered that it was supported only by a section of the profession, that the public generally regarded it with indifference or suspicion, and that even the Liberal party in the House of Commons looked askance at it as a piece of unwarrantable interference. But though it proved abortive, it has more than an historical interest. Not only is it the first attempt to introduce in England a principle that most continental nations had already acknowledged and acted on, the duty of the State to supervise *all* education, but it laid down the lines which, I have little doubt, will be followed in any future Bill. The backbone of the Bill was an Educational Council, one half of which was to be chosen by her Majesty, with the advice of the Privy Council, the other half by Senates of the Universities. The particular members and the length of office are matters of detail with which I will not trouble you. The duties of the Council were: 1. To draw up rules and make arrangements for the examination of persons, who, being teachers or intending to be teachers, voluntarily apply to be so examined. 2. To grant certificates to teachers who have passed their examination, and to keep a register of persons having such certificates. 3. To draw up rules for the examination of pupils. 4. To keep a register of private schools, and draw up conditions of the registry of such schools, and to apply to registered schools all or any part of the rules the Council may make for

endowed schools. The Bill seems to me crude, and in several points open to criticism, but it will save time if I discuss it together with another bill, the only other, as far as I am aware, that has yet been drafted. In 1881 a bill was brought in by Sir J. Lubbock, Sir Lyon Playfair, and Mr. A. Balfour, "to provide for the registration and organisation of teachers." This, commonly known as Lyon Playfair's *Teachers Registration Bill*, reproduces Mr. Forster's Educational Council, with one important change in its constitution: One-fourth of the council are eventually to be elected by the general body of registered teachers. At the same time the number of State-appointed members is reduced to two. Thus the Council, instead of being a State Department tempered by the universities, becomes a more or less representative body. The functions of the Council are very similar to those of Mr. Forster's Council, with one important difference; they deal with teachers only, not with schools. Whether this limitation is a wise one, is open to question; but in another point, where the Bills differ, there can, I think, be no doubt that the Playfair Bill will the rather commend itself. Besides its own examination, the Council recognises various other examinations, both professional and non-professional, as qualifications for registration. Furthermore, it protects existing interests, and makes a bridge from the old *régime* to the new by admitting to the register any who during five years immediately before the passing of the Act have been *bonâ fide* teachers. In one point, a small one, it differs in my opinion for the worse. It imposes a fee of £5 for registration.

I will now point out wherein I consider both bills defective. The one great flaw which vitiates both, and will, I am convinced, render any bill which goes on this principle nugatory, is that registration is made optional and voluntary. Mr. Forster, it is true, provided a powerful engine to induce teachers to register. By his bill it is enacted that no person, after a date to be fixed, shall be capable of being appointed to the office of teacher in any

endowed school, including that of principal teacher, if he or she does not possess, according to the character of the school or the nature of the instruction to be given by such teacher, a certificate of fitness granted under this part of the Act. The only inducement Sir L. Playfair holds out is that registered teachers shall be exempted from serving on juries or inquests and from serving in the militia. Let us consider how voluntary registration is likely to act. It is certain that the members of the Head Masters' Conference will not register for their own sakes. What good will registration do them? It is improbable, to judge by their other acts, that they will be public-spirited enough to register *pour encourager les autres.* The leaders of the profession being absent, the register will come to be regarded as a stamp of middle-class mediocrity, and admission will be sought only by those teachers who are on the margin of respectability.

The first point, then, that I would insist upon in any future attempt at legislation is that registration should be compulsory. The second is that it should be gratuitous. The latter is a comparatively trifling matter, but the closely parallel case of compulsory vaccination will show that a fee, however moderate, would produce much irritation and needless friction.

The next point to settle is, who are to be admitted to the register? This is a question rather of practical expediency than of principle, and I will not pretend to lay down the law. I would follow the Playfair Bill in excluding those actually employed in elementary State-inspected schools, but with this exception, I would make the register at starting as wide and comprehensive as possible. And in this exclusion, I need hardly add, I am not actuated by any class or caste feeling. I am fully aware that numbers of elementary masters are far more efficient teachers than those who claim a higher rank, and I look forward with confidence to the time when the wall of partition which separates the schools of the rich from the schools of the poor will be broken down. More than one breach has already been made in it. Yet, as Bishop Butler says,

things are as they are, and it is no good blinking the fact that elementary teachers are at present, to all intents and purposes, a branch of the Civil Service, and that to include them in the register would be to place them under a dual government, and set the two masters to whom they would be subject—the Council and the Department—by the ears. But with this important proviso, I would require every teacher to inscribe his or her name on the register, and to add the following particulars: 1. Address; 2. Post at present occupied; 3. Length of service; 4. Degrees and certificates; 5. Teacher's certificate or diploma. The existence of such a directory would in more ways than one be a boon to the profession. 1. The doctors, the lawyers, the clergy, have each their directory. It is one of the outward and visible signs of a profession, and the lack of it among ourselves is one proof among many that we are not worthy the name of a profession. 2. It would serve as an effective check on bogus degrees, those permutations and combinations of letters that may seem at worst an innocent vanity, but do still impose on the ignorant public. Our register would admit no titles to which Professor Jenkin could apply his pounds, shillings and pence measurement. 3. It would be of considerable value to the statistician, showing, for instance, what hold the universities had on the teaching of the country, where our middle-class masters are mainly trained, and so forth. But lastly, it would be the drag-net or rather the dredge to bring to land all the strange creatures that now swim unseen or half seen in our scholastic seas. When we have landed them, it will be time enough to sift and sort. After a certain date I would admit no teacher without credentials. What exactly these should be is a detail into which I will not now enter, but on one point I would insist. In addition to the degree, certificate or diploma granted by the university, or some other recognized public body, there should be required some proof of acquaintance with the art and science of education. It would be necessary at first for the council to institute examinations of its own, in this branch at least, the standard set by the University of

London and that of Cambridge being too high for the teachers in lower middle-class schools. But I see no reason why the University of Cambridge should not add teaching as a special branch of their local examinations.

It will be observed that I have omitted what is even more important than the art and science of teaching—*i.e.*, the practice. This, too, will come in time, but I think that public opinion is not ripe for enforcing this, and that we have not at present the machinery for testing it. We must wait till we have organized training colleges for our higher education, with the practising schools which form an integral part of such colleges.

On this point the London University has departed from the example of the Teachers' Syndicate of Cambridge; and while the latter gives two separate diplomas, one for the theory and one for the practice, it awards a single diploma for the two combined. There is much to be said for either system. Cambridge appeals mainly to those who are entering on their profession; London, which restricts its examinations to graduates, attracts those who have already had experience in their work. As to the possibility of testing the practical efficiency of a teacher, my own experience as an examiner has led me to the following conclusions. The higher qualities — stimulative power, moral force, knowledge of character, sympathy, tact—all these defy analysis, and certainly cannot be gauged by hearing an hour's lesson given to a strange class. On the other hand, the secondary qualities of method, lucidity and discipline, to a certain extent, can be tested, and this part of the examination is very valuable as a means of eliminating the incompetent, the halt, maim and blind, either physically or mentally.

To sum up, I would venture to lay down these two propositions. 1. The State is bound to provide for the compulsory registration of teachers. 2. No one should rank as a teacher who has not proved his knowledge of the science and art of education. As corollaries, I would submit to you, with some diffidence, that the best machinery for carrying out this registration is an Educational Council

such as that suggested by Mr. Forster, and that it should be an instruction to this Council to accept as proof of competence the existing examinations of the universities and other public bodies, unless they are clearly proved to be inadequate, supplementing them by examinations of their own whenever the existing machinery is found defective.

"If there is one thing which English education requires at the present time more than any other, it is the organisation and fitting together of the different parts." So wrote Dr. Percival in 1874, and the need, I am afraid, is not less crying in 1884. Our elementary teachers still lack culture (how can they get culture while during their most receptive years they are under the Egyptian bondage of pupil-teacherhood?); our public schoolmasters still lack training (except in athletics, and of this they have perhaps too much). I know not which lack is the more disastrous. The elementary teachers have a registration, they do receive a professional training, and consequently they do constitute a profession, or at least a branch of a profession. The higher school teachers are unregistered and untrained; they are not a profession, they are simply amateurs and empirics. They have zeal, but it is not zeal according to knowledge; they have enthusiasm, but it is enthusiasm for their own schools, not for education generally; they shine rather in the pulpit than in the class room, and honour the teacher's desk principally as a stepping stone to the episcopal bench; they are clerics first and schoolmasters afterwards. *Si documentum quaeris circumspice.* Of the members of the Head Masters' Conference, the natural leaders of our so-called profession, how many are attending this Conference? One only, and he a layman, the distinguished head master of University College School, whom we heard this morning, an Abdiel, whose presence emphasises the faithlessness of his *confrères*.

"Organize your secondary education;" that was the lesson that Mr. M. Arnold brought us back from his visit to continental schools; and I would only add, in order to organise you must first register.

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) said he would call upon Mr. Barrow Rule, who, for years, as the secretary or agent of the College of Preceptors, had done excellent work in laying the foundations of the movement, the history of which had been chronicled more or less by Mr. Storr's paper, which they had heard.

Mr. BARROW RULE said that Mr. Storr had made to-day the same proposals which he made twenty-three years ago, and which resulted in the formation of the Scholastic Registration Association, of which he had been the Honorary Secretary. It was very sad to hear that they were at present exactly where they were twenty-three years ago, and unless Conferences did something more than talk, he was afraid they would remain where they were for twenty-three years to come. Mr. Storr had been rather hard upon clergymen, but his own experience in connection with the attempt to promote the principle of scholastic registration was that clergymen were warm supporters of the principle, and that some of the masters of the highest schools in the country had been honorary members of the association to which he had referred. He would like to see registration made compulsory, but after an experience of twenty-three years, after interviews with Governments, and after Conferences innumerable, he feared it would be impossible to go so far. They had to deal with things as they were rather than with things as they ought to be. They had a great weight to move; they had public opinion to educate; they had Governments to move, and a Parliament to move. A former Government had said they would not move unless they were pushed, and it took a very strong push indeed to move the Government. He could assure them that if they attempted to make registration compulsory they would create a very strong feeling of opposition to the movement. He regretted to have to say so, but his own personal desire must not in any way thwart

his judgment or his policy. With regard to payment of registration fees, Mr. Storr had not suggested how money was to be raised to defray the expenses. If a council were to be appointed, such as was proposed twenty-three years ago, or such as was proposed in Mr. Forster's Endowed Schools Bill, No. 2, or such as was proposed in Dr. Playfair's Bill, the expenses would have to be met, and how were the funds to be raised? He found that all other public bodies required fees. Surgeons, when they were registered, had to pay a fee; it was the custom of the day; and he feared if they made an attempt to obtain registration without payment they would fail. With regard to the voluntary registration of teachers, that subject was one which had received the most serious consideration for many years, and he would suggest that the best course they could take was to support Dr. Lyon Playfair's Bill as it was introduced into Parliament. Probably many present were aware that that Bill was very fully discussed at a conference held in the rooms of the Society of Arts, and that there was a strong unanimity of opinion in favour of the general principles of the Bill. It had been laid once before Parliament, and if the ladies and gentlemen present would obtain copies of it and study it, they would have something to go upon. It was the result of long deliberation, and it showed exactly the general feeling of the head masters of private schools and masters of public schools and of the profession in general. With reference to the elementary teachers, he knew that they claimed the right to be represented on the proposed Education Council, but they had their own system of registration. They were a body independent and complete in themselves, and it would not do for them to claim the right of registration, for the reason that registered men, according to Dr. Lyon Playfair's Bill, would have the right to elect the Council, or a certain proportion of the Council. It would be manifestly unfair that elementary teachers should have the right to elect certain members of a council which would have nothing to do with elementary education at all; it would be as

unfair as if the secondary teachers should claim the right to control the elementary teaching of the country.

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) said there was present a gentleman who represented the Christian Brothers, and those who had seen the room of the Christian Brothers in the present Exhibition would know that the representative of the Christian Brothers was fully entitled to be heard in any section with regard to the subject of education.

Brother NOAH asked for permission to comment on one remark by Mr. Rule, who objected to elementary teachers having anything to do with the election of gentlemen who were to sit on what he believed might be called the Elementary Teachers' Council.

The CHAIRMAN explained that Mr. Rule had only objected to elementary teachers having a vote for the election of members on the Education Council.

Brother NOAH thought that a man who built the foundation of education must certainly know something about the elements of the walls. He held, and he had the experience of two centuries to support him when he said, that elementary teachers whenever they got a chance were the very best men to move forward, and it was proposed to refuse to those men what the ladies, it seemed, would have before long, the franchise—the right to vote. It was proposed to begin by discouraging elementary teachers, and, as they all knew, discouragement was the beginning, the middle, and the end of failure. With regard to the qualifications of teachers, he thought that there was very frequently a great mistake made in regard to the idea of qualification and as to the means by which that qualification was determined. He had gone through the drudgery of passing an elementary examination as an English schoolmaster simply for the satisfaction, as he called it, of knowing what an English elementary school was. He passed that examination, and he was bound to say, very brilliantly. Yet he thought that as far as practical work was concerned, and as far as twenty-one years had enabled him to qualify himself, he was just as thoroughly

qualified, if not better, eight years ago than he was to-day. He recollected having spoken to the gentleman who was President of the Council of Examination at Carmarthen, and saying that he understood there were special marks given to candidates who had passed through a training college. He said he had not had that pleasure, but that he would like to make one stipulation. If he could prove that he was as qualified to speak on education and on all subjects which entered into the curriculum of an elementary school, he thought that, instead of depriving him of 100 marks, the Government ought to give him £100 for having educated himself. The presiding gentleman said he admitted the logic of the argument, and added that they were working on red tape lines. If they would only add white and blue to the red tape, he (Brother Noah) would accept the whole thing. With regard to the teachers, he held that they should be qualified; and the founder of his Order, who was called Venerable in the Catholic, and who would be called honourable by all churches worthy of the name, two hundred years ago, said, "Do not allow a profane hand to touch mind without preparation that would not be allowed to handle matter without years of instruction." As a proof of that in his own day, De la Salle opened five training schools, not for the Brothers of his new Society, but for laymen. As to the qualifications which teachers should have, he held that in a great many cases (he did not say in all) they should be satisfied with judging the tree, not by its flowers or by its leaves, but by its fruit; and it sometimes happened they deprived most excellent teachers of the opportunity of obtaining a livelihood for themselves and of doing good to the country at large by the narrow lines that up to the present had been laid down in England. He spoke knowingly, having had the opportunity within the last two months in Room 5 of talking with numbers of competent persons, and it was a very general opinion that while there must be some test of ability, it was not the test of to-day. So far as the Brothers of the Christian Schools were concerned, they

were only too happy, wherever the opportunity presented itself, of offering their services to any Government which would accept them, according to its own test, and would allow them to go on their way in peace, according to the Gospel maxim. They asked such Governments to accept two centuries of experience as evidence that if they carried out the results of that experience they would succeed, although they did not tally with their views. He held that in the old Lancasterian system of teaching, in which there was a large number of children learning from the alphabet up to cube root, if they had one unsuccessful teacher amongst the whole he spoiled the work of the entire hall. He was glad to see in London and other places where the funds were forthcoming, that they were doing away with the greatest incubus against the progress of children and of teachers—the pupil-teacher system. A lad at fourteen begins to feel that he could do something for himself, but he then had to commence to work for others. He believed unless they changed the system of pupil teachers, and made them rather pupil students, they would never perpetuate a first-class system of teachers who would do first-class work.

The Rev. Professor CROMBIE wished to say a word upon that part of Mr. Storr's valuable paper which dealt with the necessity of registration for secondary schoolmasters. He had never in his life listened to words more true, or which more obviously commended themselves to the intelligence of any audience. They were trenchant indeed, but they were not too trenchant for the subject with which they dealt, and he would not doubt that they would carry conviction by-and-by to the minds even of those who were at present most thoroughly opposed to his proposal. One gentleman who had spoken had objected to the system of registration for higher teachers on the ground of the opposition that it would awaken. Why should they be terrified by that. Had there been in England any great movement during the last thirty years which had not been most vehemently opposed? If they went forward with the

movement, it might not perhaps succeed for a few years to come, because England was strongly Conservative, especially where vested interests were concerned; but he did not doubt that as the Medical Bill, which embodied the same principle as that which Mr. Storr advocated, namely, that no unqualified persons should be permitted to deal with the bodies of men, had commended itself to the country, so by-and-by they would carry the principle that none should be admitted to deal with the intellectual and moral powers of men but those who had given evidence of their qualifications, and whose names were to be found in the register. People in Scotland were somewhat progressive, and had strong ideas upon the subject of education, and he believed some present would not allow Mr. Storr's suggestions to pass without having practical effect given to them. He thought that by-and-by those great scholars who fill the position of head masters in the great public schools in England, and those men who were quite their equals in many respects, who filled the positions of assistant masters, would see the necessity of something of the kind; and if the State would take secondary education under its control, a problem which was coming to the front, and which the Endowed Schools Commission in Scotland was doing its best to bring to a solution, he had no doubt those difficulties which bulk so much in the minds of some people would melt into mist. He wished, as one who had been a secondary master and was now a teacher of men more advanced, to record his strong approval of Mr. Storr's admirable paper.

Professor MEIKLEJOHN said he took it that the practical outcome of Mr. Storr's paper was that there should be registration of all teachers, and secondly that that registration should be gratis. He would like very much that Mr. Storr should consider the propriety of amending his paper in one direction. Perhaps he had not noticed that the House of Commons' Committee upon the Education question had recommended the creation of a Minister of Public Instruction. That minister would be the natural

and proper Chairman of such a Council as Mr. Storr recommended. If he were the Chairman of that Council, all registered teachers and all State teachers would be under him, and therefore they might accept the certificate of the Education Department as tantamount to registration, and enter the names of all elementary teachers upon the register, and at a given date, say after giving all persons engaged in teaching five years' notice, they might make registration compulsory. He had great sympathy with what Mr. Barrow Rule said, and he saw in that room three if not four secretaries of societies for promoting registration or the organisation of the profession, or something of that sort. He was one of those unfortunate secretaries himself, and all the Societies were in a state of suspended animation.

Mr. STORR had only one word to say, and that was to explain that he hoped he had made it clear in his paper it was not because he looked on elementary teachers as in any way of a lower grade that he would separate them from the registration he had proposed. If such a measure as Professor Meiklejohn had sketched would be a step towards amalgamating the whole profession, he would willingly accept the amendment. As one of the dead secretaries, he might add that those various defunct societies had at last re-risen from their ashes, and that, as most of them in that room might be aware (though he was not the secretary of it), there was such a thing as the Teachers' Guild, and one of its first objects was the promotion of the registration of teachers, and the bringing about, as part of the same object, the amalgamation of the profession into one. It opened its doors to every rank of teachers, as some of the promoters whom he saw present would tell them. All who knew Miss Buss and Miss Hadland would allow, if he might use such an unfeminine phrase, that if they put their backs into a movement they were likely to carry it through.

The following paper by Dr. Morrison was then read by Mr. Kennedy:—

THE SCOTCH TRAINING COLLEGES.

By T. Morrison, LL.D.

The Scotch Training Colleges are of recent origin. Until 1826 no provision existed in Scotland for the systematic training of teachers in the principles and practice of education. For three hundred years the majority of the parish schools were taught by men who had more or less of a university training, but who were obliged, each in his own sphere, to work out for themselves the principles of their art. Their success, considering the disadvantages under which they laboured, was great; and the progress of Scotland in all that exalts a nation is, in no small degree, due to her parish schools. About the beginning of the present century great changes took place in the distribution of the population. The advance in arts and manufactures had the effect of gathering into one place large bodies of men, and the town population in all the mining districts increased rapidly. The parochial system was incapable of dealing with this altered state of matters. Thousands were growing up in ignorance and in utter heathenism. Dr. Chalmers, above all men, saw clearly what the result would be if this was allowed to go on, and he vigorously set himself to devise a remedy. That remedy was, in a word, the establishment of day and Sabbath schools, and of churches, wherever the population had outgrown the existing machinery.

Among those whose hearts were touched by the eloquent appeals of Dr. Chalmers was a young man from Paisley—David Stow—who entered, with all the ardour of youth and all the enthusiasm of a chivalrous and unselfish nature,

upon Sabbath school work. Stow soon found that much of his energy was misspent from his ignorance of the principles which underlie all true teaching. Accordingly he was led to examine into the matter very carefully ; and, by a process of intuition, more than by logical deduction, he elaborated those principles which he afterwards embodied in his 'Training System,'—a work which, at the time, and especially in England, produced little less than a revolution in education. Convinced that the principles applicable to Sabbath school teaching were equally applicable to common school teaching, Stow set about organising a school where these principles might be reduced to practice. The result, in brief, was the erection, in 1836, of the Glasgow Normal Seminary—the first established in Great Britain.

The Scotch Training Colleges were thus the outcome of the revived religious spirit which characterised the period subsequent to the close of the Great War.

Stow's original idea was that the Normal Seminary should confine itself exclusively to the elucidation of the principles of teaching, and, particularly, to the application of these principles in the actual work of teaching. He had no faith in mere theory—in mere lectures on the science of teaching apart from actual teaching. So it came to pass that the students who flocked to the Normal Seminary were almost entirely engaged in actual school work.

It soon became apparent, however, that many who came to acquire the art of teaching had not the knowledge which it was essential for them to possess, if they were to instruct others. This led to the appointment of teachers, who gave the students instruction in the ordinary branches of education, and so paved the way for the development of the Normal Seminary into the Training College of our day.

The history of the growth of the Training Colleges can be easily told. Edinburgh followed the example of Glasgow, and established a Normal School. At the Disruption of the Church, in 1843, the Established Church retained the Normal School in Edinburgh. The Free

Church immediately set up one for herself. In Glasgow the Normal Seminary remained in the possession of the Free Church until 1845, when the courts of law decided that the buildings were the property of the Established Church. The Free Church at once set about the erection of new buildings, and the present Free Church Training College in Glasgow, of which I have had the honour of being Principal for over thirty years, was erected.

Thus, in 1845, there were four colleges in Scotland, two in Edinburgh and two in Glasgow. But as each of these colleges has a male and a female side, taught by the same staff, it may be said that in 1845 there were eight training colleges in Scotland—four for males and four for females. Since that time three small colleges have been added, one for females in connection with the Episcopal Church in Edinburgh, and two for females in Aberdeen; one in connection with the Established, and one with the Free Church.

Leaving out of view the Episcopal College in Edinburgh, which admits only students belonging to that Church, the Presbyterian Colleges are denominational, but thoroughly unsectarian. When the great Education Act of 1872 was passed,—the greatest and most important educational measure of the last three hundred years,—the Training Colleges were left outside the scope of that Act. This was done on purpose. Considerable alarm was expressed in 1872 because the Act did not enjoin religious education, and there was danger that the Act might be shipwrecked on this rock. Rather than that should happen, a great many zealous advocates of religious education—some of them the foremost men in the Churches—willingly accepted the Act as it was, on the implied understanding that the training of the teachers should be left in the hands of the Churches. It was felt that religious education was safer in the hands of men imbued with religious sentiment, than in those of men who taught it by Act of Parliament. Accordingly, the management of the Presbyterian Colleges is in the hands of the Churches. Save in that one respect,

they are really national. No student is excluded on the ground of religious belief. All the privileges of the colleges, including scholarships, are open to students of any creed ; and at this present moment each college has students belonging to all the three great leading Presbyterian denominations, and several to the smaller denominations. One of the most distinguished students who left our own college last Christmas was a pure Jewess.

I am desirous to emphasise this feature of the Presbyterian Colleges, because it is, in many quarters, ignorantly supposed that the Church of Scotland inculcates on her students her own peculiar principles, and that the Free Church does the same. Nothing could be further from the actual facts of the case. Both bodies endeavour to give their students sound religious instruction in the common doctrines of our faith, but, above all, so to form and mould their moral and religious character that their influence may be always on the side of that which is pure, and lovely, and of good report. And I will take it upon me to say, from testimony received from various sources, that we have not failed in our aim, but that the teachers of Scotland at this moment, a very large proportion of whom have gone from our Training Colleges, are worthy, in all respects, of the confidence which they undoubtedly enjoy. I need scarcely say that these colleges have a very stringent conscience clause, not enforced by Act of Parliament, but by the liberal and enlightened views held by bodies which are sometimes represented as the impersonation of bigotry and prejudice.

I cannot give even an outline of the history of these colleges since 1845. This is less necessary because, in its main features, the history of the Scotch colleges is almost identical with that of those of England. The introduction of the minutes of Council, the consequent creation of a new class of students—the Queen's scholars—the provision made for their training by successive codes, from the famous code of 1863 until that of the present year, the gradual expansion of the course of study, the higher

attainments now demanded of the students, and the consequent employment of a larger and more cultured staff of lecturers and governesses,—all these are matters on which I would fain dwell, but they are matters of history now, and well known to all who take an interest in education; and, as time is limited, I pass them by, and come to consider the present function of the Scotch Training Colleges.

In doing this I must dwell for a moment on one feature of our educational system, which differs essentially from what obtains in England. In theory, we have no elementary schools in Scotland—*i.e.*, schools where the instruction is confined to the common or elementary branches, commonly called the three *R's*. There is no sharp line of demarcation between the elementary and the higher class schools, as in England. The theory in Scotland has always been that every child in the kingdom is entitled to have placed within his reach the means of passing on to the university, and so of gaining admission to those higher seats of learning, attendance at which opens the door to the professions and to the civil service of the kingdom in its various departments. This has been the theory; and, on the whole, the theory has been reduced to practice. It follows from this at once, as a necessary corollary, that if this connection between the common schools of the country and the universities, which in the past has been productive of such incalculable benefit, is to be maintained, the teachers of these schools must be qualified to carry their scholars on to the point at which the universities begin. In the past, I regret to say, this has not been difficult of accomplishment, because the universities, for reasons which I shall not stop to discuss, have thrown their portals open to all who applied for admission and could pay the prescribed fee. But this system is doomed, and we may confidently hope that soon—very soon—we shall have such reforms as will render it impossible for any one to enter the universities who has not satisfied an independent examining Board that he is qualified to profit by

the instruction of the university. To provide qualified teachers for the public schools of the kingdom, under the conditions just mentioned, is the function of the Scotch Training Colleges

What provision has been made to enable the Colleges adequately to discharge this function? Two objects have to be kept constantly in view—the direct instruction of the students in the branches they will have to teach, and their actual training in the theory and practice of education. The latter object is secured by lectures on Mental Science, in so far as it bears upon education ; upon an examination of the various systems of education that have been proposed ; and, above all, by actual teaching, under close superintendence, in the large Practising Schools attached to all the Colleges. In these schools the students have constant opportunity of putting in practice the principles inculcated in the lectures, which thus become a living reality, and not a mere conglomeration of sentences. This portion of the student's work is under the charge of the Principal, who, in all the Scotch colleges, takes an active part in the training of the students, or of an officer specially devoted to this work. H.M. Inspector of Training Colleges, assisted by the Senior Inspector of the district in which the College is situated, annually tests each student's teaching power by a severe practical exercise in teaching. These officers have no interest in giving anything but a fair estimate of the student's teaching power ; and the result of these examinations, held in December last, was this :—

Number of Male Students Examined . . .	158
Average per centage of Marks obtained for Teaching .	74
Number of Female Students Examined . . .	250
Average per centage of Marks obtained for Teaching .	73

The first object is secured, as in England, by the appointment of an efficient staff of lecturers and governesses, each an expert in his or her own special department, whose time is wholly or partially occupied in imparting instruction.

So far there is nothing peculiar in the equipment of our Scotch Training Colleges. But there is one respect in which our arrangements differ essentially from those in England, and differ, I think I may venture to say without offence, for the better. All the male Training Colleges are situated in University towns ; and it was long the earnest desire of the authorities that certain students should be allowed to take University classes during their residence in the Training College. Various obstacles occurred to prevent the carrying of this idea into effect. But after the passing of the Act of 1872, and under the enlightened administration of Sir Francis Sandford, to whom Scotch education owes much, all those Queen's Scholars who, at the Admission Examination, come up to a prescribed standard in certain University subjects, are allowed, during their residence at the Training College, to attend one or more University classes. During the course of the University session the authorities of the Training College may exempt such students from attendance at all or any of their classes at their discretion. A special examination of these University students, conducted by the Professors and H.M. Inspector of Training Colleges, is held every year, and the results tabulated. In arranging the class lists these results are added to those obtained in the ordinary Training College branches. The Scotch Training Colleges are thus practically affiliated to our national universities ; and so the whole educational system of Scotland forms an organic whole.

The advantages of this combined system are manifold. I shall specify only two. The student, being for five months set free to prosecute the study of one or two special branches, generally Latin, Greek, or Mathematics, acquires a much greater mastery over these branches than he could do if his attention was directed to a number of subjects. His knowledge is both broadened and deepened. From their age and their previous training as pupil teachers, these students are prepared to profit to the fullest extent by the University prelections. That they do so profit is

shown by the fact that they annually carry off a very considerable number of prizes.

This is one advantage, but, to my mind, it is not the chief one. Wherever a number of youths congregate with the view of preparing for one common profession, there is danger of their measuring themselves by themselves, and so of becoming narrow and pedantic. The University is an excellent antidote to this tendency. There the student is brought into contact with the flower of the youth of the kingdom, and into competition with men destined for all the walks of life. His views are thus enlarged, and he acquires a breadth and culture which are of priceless value to every educator.

At present the Education Department recognises attendance at the University for two sessions only. Strong representations have been made to the Department to recognise three sessions, at the end of which many students could graduate ; but these representations have been hitherto without effect. The Endowed Schools Commissioners, however, have recognised the importance of a third University session, and have set aside a sum of £250, to be given annually as bursaries of not less than £25 to Training College Students in Glasgow who have already taken *two* sessions at the University.

"Every Queen's Scholar obtaining such bursary shall be taken bound to complete his curriculum for a degree in Arts or Science during the time he holds the bursary, and thereafter to submit himself for examination for such degree."

What effect has University attendance on the ordinary branches of the College curriculum? Our experience has been that the work of the Training College proper does not suffer. The University students invariably head our Class Lists. This is due partly to the fact that the best men are sent to the University, but more, I believe, to this—that the exact study of one particular branch tends to render progress in other branches easy.

The extent to which advantage is taken of the privilege

to attend the University is shown in the following table, taken from the last published report on the Training Colleges of Scotland.

Universities.	Years.	Number of Students.
Edinburgh	1874	17
Glasgow	,,	16
Edinburgh	1875	22
Glasgow	,,	11
Edinburgh	1876	26
Glasgow	,,	31
Edinburgh	1877	60
Glasgow	,,	60
Edinburgh	1878	66
Glasgow	,,	64
Edinburgh	1879	92
Glasgow	,,	79
Edinburgh	1880	85
Glasgow	,,	82
Edinburgh	1881	80
Glasgow	,,	78
Edinburgh	1882	64
Glasgow	,,	78
Total	——	1011

It should be added that a large number of students who have attended two sessions at the University during their residence in the Training College return to the University, after their probation is finished, and graduate.

The privilege of attending the University is reacting upon the Schools. It is considered a point of honour for pupil teachers to win the special University mark, and those now coming forward show manifest improvement over those of a few years back.

Such is the system under which our Scotch teachers are being trained. I do not say it is perfect. It will easily admit of a little more breadth and elasticity, particularly in the direction of giving facilities for the training of specialists in those Science subjects, the introduction of which into our common schools is a mere question of time. I have myself no doubt but that the Training Colleges will be able to adapt themselves to any new

circumstances that may emerge, and to meet any demands made upon them. I think I may venture to say that, at the present moment, the number of University men who have also passed through the Training Colleges, entering the teaching profession in Scotland, is greater than at any former period of her history, and is continually on the increase; and that the present teachers of Scotland will contrast favourably with those of any former age.

It remains that I show, in a sentence or two, to what extent the Training Colleges have contributed to the actual supply of Teachers. Under the regulations of the Department, the Presbyterian Colleges can train only 800 students,—400 of the first and 400 of the second year,—including males and females. We hope to see this restriction removed by the present Vice-President, whose intelligent acquaintance with and appreciation of Scotch education are guarantees that no fast and hard line will be allowed to interfere with what is beneficial. Besides this limitation, the supply is maintained by the admission of Graduates and that shoal of acting teachers who, failing to obtain admission to the Training Colleges, manage to scramble through one or two years' teaching in a Public School, and then come forward to the Certificate Examination. But with all these side avenues to the profession, the following are the facts regarding the training colleges :—

"The extent to which the Training Colleges have contributed to the existing supply of Certificated Teachers in Scotland is shewn from the fact, that of 3211 Masters employed in schools reported on last year, 1929, or 60·08 per cent., had been trained for two years; 323, or 10·06 per cent., for one year; and 98, or 3·05 per cent., for less than one year; while 861, or 26·81 per cent., were untrained. In like manner, of 2517 Schoolmistresses, 1734, or 68·89 per cent., had been trained for two years; 122, or 4·85 per cent., for one year; 8, or 32 per cent., for less than one year; and 653, or 25·94 per cent., were untrained."—*Education Report for* 1882–83.

These facts speak for themselves, and shew conclusively

that in the past the Training Colleges of Scotland have contributed in no unworthy degree to the production of a race of Teachers who can hold their own against all comers; and I feel convinced that what they have done in the past they will continue to do in the future.

DISCUSSION.

Professor CROMBIE said he addressed the meeting again because he happened to be able to speak from personal knowledge of the work of Scotch training colleges. The paper written by Dr. Morrison, the veteran director of one of the most distinguished of those training colleges, gave a remarkably clear, full, and fair statement of the work of the colleges, but he had not, he thought, felt the great defect of the Scotch and also of the English and Irish training colleges, namely, that they were simply preparatory schools for the Government examination. The code which they must follow was the syllabus of subjects laid down by the Committee of Privy Council, to be studied by all elementary teachers, and the nature of the instruction given was measured and determined by the nature of the examination papers, which were prescribed at each Government annual examination. They were not free to teach the subjects in the broad spirit in which they were taught in the university, and he imagined that the Committee of the Privy Council were beginning to see that the principle on which those colleges had been conducted for so many years was too narrow, and one not to be continued, and that they should give an extension of the privilege of allowing the best students of the training college to attend a university, and profit there by the broad and general culture which every true university inspired. He thought that these Colleges failed in giving to the educator that broad and full spirit of culture which alone could discipline and elevate the mind. He had for five years been a lecturer in the

Edinburgh Training College, and he saw at once the narrowing influence of a merely professional school of training upon young men who came up from the elementary schools of the country, and who had no opportunity of mixing with others who breathed the free air of a university. Since he became a member of the Education Committee of the Church of Scotland he had naturally taken a deep interest in those matters, and the Committee were animated by the spirit which had led the normal colleges to send students to the universities, although they would never arrive at any full solution of this great question until the normal colleges were merged in a university system. In Scotland they were a progressive people, and a bold proposal had come from the university of Aberdeen to undertake the duty of preparing the elementary teachers of Scotland for their work, by undertaking the work of the training colleges in the broader spirit of the university, provided the same pecuniary advantages be given to the university. He presumed they were all aware that 75 per cent. of the expenses of the training colleges was borne by the country, and he thought the country was entitled to demand that the teacher should have the broader culture which the universities alone could give. A very suggestive paper had been read in another department upon the University of London, as it was to be in London, and no doubt when that ideal was secured, the suggestion as to the university training of teachers would be carried out. There was one statement in Dr. Morrison's paper which he thought was a little overstated. Dr. Morrison said, "I think I may venture to say that at the present moment the number of university men who have also passed through the training colleges, entering the teaching profession in Scotland, is greater than at any former period of her history." He must demur to that as a matter of fact. Under the old parochial system, which existed up to the last twelve years, there was scarcely a master of a parochial school in Scotland who had not had several sessions of training at a university.

Mr. KENNEDY explained that Dr. Morrison referred to men who had passed through training colleges as well.

Professor CROMBIE said there were no training colleges in those days, and the consequence was that almost every teacher of a parochial school had two or three sessions' attendance at the universities, and many of them were licentiates of the Church, and had passed throughout the full curriculum of philosophy. He was glad to find there was no real difference between Dr. Morrison and himself, and he commended Dr. Morrison's paper to all who took an interest in Scotch training colleges, as containing a very complete and fair and very able statement of the work they were doing.

The Rev. J. STARK (Duntocher) said he could speak of Dr. Morrison as being the best trainer of teachers they had in Scotland. That gentleman happened to be one of Mr. Stow's pupils, and had some knowledge of the scheme in connection with training colleges, which began with him, and there was no need to speak of the advantages which had resulted in England, Scotland, and elsewhere, from Mr. Stow's system. He was quite of opinion that the teachers of Scotland were to-day very much better than ever they were before, and he said so after having had an acquaintance of several years with the old parochial school teachers. New professors might be created if it were taken for granted that training colleges had reached their utmost state of efficiency. They had not; and the facts brought forward in Dr. Morrison's paper went to show that they were steadily improving in efficiency. There was no restricting teachers to remain elementary teachers, and he could mention men in high positions who had obtained their training in a Scotch training school. Professor Huxley had got his training in one of them, and they would all know whether he had remained an elementary teacher. They needed to go over a great many facts of that kind to show the precise position of things. In Scotland they were strongly in favour of sending all the teachers they could to universities, but a large proportion of the lads

had no time to spend in going in for an expensive education. If their normal schools were not perfect they would like to have university training, but they did not wish to let the university take the place of training colleges. They must have a thoroughly organised school from the top to the bottom, and that was a thing which in Scotland they wanted to dissociate from the university. He believed that Dr. Morrison could show Professor Crombie and the two other professors who had spoken, how very much he could walk a-head of them if he were not bound, as he was, by the English Department of the Privy Council of Education.

Mr. MACKAY (Editor of the *Educational News*) expressed his satisfaction with the paper which had been read, and said that two points had been particularly brought out in it. The first was the relation of religion to the training colleges, the second was the relation of the universities to the training colleges. The question arose why training colleges were attached to separate churches ; but he was not going to express any opinion on that point. The other point was the relation of the universities to the normal schools. The paper pointed out that a great many students were now going to the Scottish universities, an increasing number year by year, and, as he understood, the limit of the number was simply the limit of men qualified to benefit by the university training. Seeing that pupil-teachers were now being so industriously prepared for the university curriculum, it followed that in a very few years every male student at a training college in Scotland would become a university student. They were rapidly gliding into a university training. It had been said that the training of the normal schools was very narrow. He differed from Professor Crombie on that point. He agreed that there had been, perhaps, a time when that training was narrow, but now, except so far as professional training must always be more or less narrow, that training was not such as Professor Crombie would have them to believe. The best proof of that was the fact that many

of the students who went to the universities took the highest honours there. That did not show that the men were so narrowly trained as Professor Crombie would have them to believe. If the question was asked what benefit was derived from the papers that had been read by the Professors of Education, he must frankly confess he could not see it. These papers pointed out in a general way the breadth of culture that would result from attending university education lectures; but in what respect they would be professionally useful he did not quite see. It had been said that certain questions had been discussed for twenty-three years, and were still at the same point as then. It seemed to him that the question of connecting theory with the practice of education stood very much in the same position. For over twenty years the question of training the mind on scientific principles had been one of special prominence, still philosophical theory and practical teaching had not yet been brought into living contact. It appeared to him that philosophy was at fault. If they took up books on the philosophy of education they found precisely similar terms; but if they looked a little below the surface they found that no two authors agreed precisely about the meanings of these terms. Until a practical system was perfected, by which the proper practice of the school-room would naturally be suggested by the theories of the lecture room, it could not be said that mere professional teaching was preferable to that of the training college.

The CHAIRMAN (Dr. Rigg) expressed his regret that two very practical, but not the less speculative and not the less thoughtful addresses which had been given, were not delivered in the morning. If they had been delivered in the morning, after the two addresses they had heard from the two Scotch professors, he thought that the combination of lights from Scotland they would then have had would have been a great advantage to the large audience collected at that time. He had himself listened with a sense of instruction to the speeches which had just

been delivered, and he wished to say before the discussion was closed, that he thought there was one distinction between England and Scotland which was not always kept in mind. Each country was just what its past had made it, and in a very large extent that was determined not by the recent past, but by the long past. In the long past instruction in Scotland, so far as it was organized and provided, was necessarily intellectual, for the reason that Scotland at large was not a manufacturing country; that it was a feudal country, more or less; it was ministerial or professional to a large extent. The country was agricultural to a large extent, but it was not to a large extent at that time manufacturing, and those who went to school consequently were trained to live by their faculties. It was an intellectual training, because they had to leave Scotland for the most part in order to find employment elsewhere. It was not an education of the hands, but an education of the mind. In England, a much larger country, and a much more largely populated country, and a country full of mines and manufactures, for centuries the education had been naturally a handicraft education. There were some mines, of course, in Scotland, but he was only stating the thing generally. The practical education of England was a handicraft education; it was an education of organised labourers in their labour and for their labour. That was the education of England by necessity of circumstances in the past. The consequence was that the parochial schools in Scotland were a different class of school altogether, and they educated the shepherd's son, or the agriculturist's son, to become a teacher or a minister, or so as to fit him for employment out of his own country. The experience in Scotland of the last seventy or eighty years had made a great modification in that condition of things, but still the old tendency, the old principles, the old maxims ran in Scotland to this hour. When it was added that there were many universities in that comparatively small country, and in the midst of that small population, and that those universities were not the univer-

sities, so to speak, for large-acred gentlemen, but universities for the people, that was a combination which, taken in connection with the other facts he had stated, had determined the law in regard to the bias and development of Scotch mind and Scotch schools. They must not take such a narrow view of education in England as some people did, for in England people had been educated very largely in handicrafts, and that in itself, with temperance and thrift, was education of a very important character. This was necessary for their living, just as much as Scotchmen needed to be educated in England for their living in altogether a different manner. English universities had been universities for the lords of the soil. They had not universities in many of the centres of the country, and, if they had had them, they would have been placed in the midst of multitudes of manufacturing people. England had not either the number of universities, or the sort of universities, or the constitution of universities which could be combined with such a development of school teaching, with such a class of school, with such a line of general educational development as there were in Scotland. We were endeavouring in this day, to a certain extent, to Scotticise our England, and Scotland had had to Anglicise its Scotland, or else it would have had no proper provision for the vast multitudes of people in its great towns; and the teachers of to-day, in Glasgow and elsewhere in Scotland, were not parochial teachers, as of old, but were much better fitted for their work than parochial teachers.

ORGANISATION OF INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

WEDNESDAY, AUG. 6, 10 A.M.

Chairman : The Hon. E. LYULPH STANLEY, M.P.

FREE EDUCATION.

By Rev. J. H. RIGG, D.D.

I HAVE to speak this morning on the subject of Free Education. In doing so, I shall begin by explaining what the phrase "Free Education" ought to mean, and shall show that as currently used to-day, it means, by a singular perversity of usage, precisely the contrary. To an English ear the epithet "free" is full of attraction, and seems to confer a special charm and value on the subjects to which it is applied, however precious in themselves these subjects might be. The epithet, indeed, is inseparably united with those things which are most characteristic of England, and for which England has laboured and struggled the most earnestly and perseveringly. What phrases to charm with are such as "freedom of conscience," "freedom of worship," "freedom of justice," "freedom of trade." In all these cases the word has a plain and evident sense, has one and the same sense. Following the rule of these phrases, using the word in its old and glorious meaning, free education should mean education associated with liberty; the phrase

should imply liberty of education in the largest sense. It should mean liberty for the teacher to teach freely, according to his best learning and his best skill; it should mean liberty of educational enterprise—education should be free as trade is free; it should mean liberty for the parent to choose for his child the school he thinks the best; it should mean liberty in respect of the subjects to be taught, as well as the persons to teach them—most of all where morals or religion are in question. All this, at least, should be included in the idea of free education in a free country. But what, in fact, has the phrase come to mean? It has come to mean State-provided gratuitous education, and such education cannot be free. Such education, as it is State-provided, must be State-controlled. It is not, and cannot be spontaneous; it is not, and cannot be free. State-provided, gratuitous education must mean monopoly carried into the most sacred sphere. Such monopoly cannot but be incompatible with liberty in its most precious rights and meaning. This ought to be clearly and easily understood in the great country of free trade and of free voluntary churches. A church set up by the State, provided with funds by a parliamentary budget, paid for by an annual grant out of public taxation, can never be a free church, as all the world knows; it must be the servant of the State that pays it. No more can a gratuitous State education be free education. Free education (education freely provided and freely made use of) must be education paid for by those that use it.

In France there is no employment of an ambiguous word. There State-socialism insists upon "l'éducation universelle, compulsoire, et gratuite." That is the formula used in petitions to French Chambers. In 1872 Mr. Fawcett, in the House of Commons, spoke of the demand for free education as one of the chief "planks in the programme of the International." The demand, in fact, is a communistic demand. It can only be logically based upon the theory which counts the individual and not the family as the unit in the social fabric.

In 1870 I was passing down the Rue des Saints Pères, in Paris, and in a shop which called itself "The Library of Social Science" I found such a petition to the Chambers as I have referred to—a petition for "l'éducation universelle, compulsoire, et gratuite." There I bought two publications on social science which were lying on the counter. The doctrine taught in these publications was very candid. They taught that the individual exists only for the State —there is no such thing as family sanctity or family rights. The State must rescue the units of the nation which appear on the earth from parental tyranny and parental pretensions, and educate them in State schools for the State. Here is the root of the matter. The idea is pre-Christian or Neo-Pagan—if I may use such a hybrid word —it is incompatible with true Christian freedom, individual liberty, family responsibility, parental rights or duties, and filial duty and dependence. "Free education," thus perversely understood, means not freedom but bondage, universal slavery, national degradation—nothing less—and all this coupled with financial injustice and imposition. If it became a fact it would be an organised despotism, established at the very spring and source of personal character and conduct; a tyranny taking hold of the whole people almost from their cradles; a usurpation depriving parents of their most sacred rights; and, withal, a despotism, a tyranny, a usurpation, sustained by means of a public tax, pressing most heavily on those most wronged by it.

The demand is for a *comprehensive* and *complete* national system of "free education." This must be its meaning if there is any principle or reality in it; it must mean this or nothing. A free education could not be claimed for or by well-to-do rate-paying artisan voters and denied to small tradesmen. It could not be claimed on behalf of the drapers and grocers of a by-street and denied to those in the main street. It could not be demanded by or for East-end tradesmen and refused to West-end trades-

men. It could not be maintained as a right for Oxford Street silk-mercers and denied to professional men, often so poor and struggling for long years together, often poor and struggling to the last. Nor could it be refused to the farmer, small or large, if granted to the townsman; or to the gentry if conceded to the wealthy banker or to the professional classes. It would have to be a universal system, a system for all classes, embracing schools and colleges of every sort and every grade, and technical schools and colleges as well as others. It could hardly stop short of free universities to crown the whole vast fabric of national education. Such is, in fact, the scope and meaning of the parallel demand in France at this moment. And such must be its meaning for England if it is to be made a party cry or a principle of government. Without question such a scheme of national education is vast enough in its scope and momentous enough in its meaning to constitute a policy, to give character to a party; there would be volume enough in the proposal to give inflation to a party cry. But, however, France, with its immemorial use and custom of centralised despotism, its ideas of paternal government, its ignorance or disregard of those principles of true individual liberty which Englishmen count so precious, may be disposed in regard to the acceptance of such a national system—and the views and purposes of M. Bert seem to be too despotic and too drastic for complete or ready acceptance even in France—it is beyond belief that in this English country of inveterate liberty and personal independence, in this country of individual convictions and family sanctity, in the country of Adam Smith, and Stuart Mill, and John Bright, and Henry Fawcett, such a system, when once its true meaning and necessary scope and extent are understood, can meet with any considerable measure of public approval.

It is no wonder that certain movements and manifestoes, emanating from politicians whose views seem to be directly opposed to what were till lately regarded as among the

most sacred of liberal principles, have awakened in many thoughtful minds serious apprehensions in regard to the "coming slavery." The *laissez faire* policy of past times may have been too negative, but its fault was on the right side; better far *laissez faire* than organised, aggressive, all-invading State-socialism. There is a just medium between the two; there are limits within which the State may interpose its authority and help to protect the defenceless and to lift up the helpless and fallen. But such State-socialism as that of which the project of a national system of gratuitous education forms an essential and significant part involves treason to the true "rights of man." It is no wonder, accordingly, if not only bishops and clergy, but statesmen like Mr. Fawcett and Mr. Goschen, and speculative thinkers also, such as Mr. Auberon Herbert and Mr. Herbert Spencer, should agree in warning us against the tendency to State-socialism apparent in such movements and manifestoes as I have alluded to, whether called political, or educational, or philanthropic, and whether proceeding from the newest school of advanced politics or from any other quarter. All men who care for spiritual freedom, for the liberty of the soul, for high principles of thought and morals, for the rights of conscience, for liberty, in any such sense as that expounded by Stuart Mill, should be united against the demand, in particular, for gratuitous State-education. Not, indeed, that the State can have no function whatever in relation to the education of its citizens. Mr. Mill in his Essay on Liberty has laid down the principles which should regulate the action of the State in this matter. He teaches that the State is bound to enforce the provision for all children of a certain minimum of education, and, moreover, to do all that a wise and impartial Government can do towards testing and also facilitating the supply by voluntary agencies of education in every kind and of every grade. He admits that in cases of educational destitution which cannot otherwise be met, it may be necessary for the Government to step in and take direct action towards supplying the needful education; but he teaches that the

less Government has to do with providing education itself the better :—

"If," he says, "the Government would make up its mind to require for every child a good education, it might save itself the trouble of providing one. It might leave to parents to obtain the education where and how they pleased, and content itself with paying the school fees of the poorer class of children, and defraying the entire school expenses of those who have no one else to pay for them. The objections which are urged with reason against State education do not apply to the enforcement of education by the State, but to the State's taking upon itself to direct that education, which is a totally different thing."

Further, he says :—

"An education established and controlled by the State should only exist, if it exist at all, as one among many competing experiments, carried on for the purpose of example and stimulus, to keep the others up to a certain standard of excellence. Unless, indeed, when society in general is in so backward a state that it could not or would not provide for itself any proper institutions of education, unless the Government undertook the task ; then, indeed, the Government may, *as the less of two great evils*, take upon itself the business of schools or universities, *as it may that of joint stock companies, when private enterprise, in a shape fitted for undertaking great works of industry, does not exist in the country.* But, in general, if the country contains a sufficient number of persons qualified to provide education under Government auspices, the same persons would be able and willing to give an equally good education on the voluntary principle, under the assurance of remuneration afforded by a law rendering education compulsory, combined with State aid to those unable to defray the expense."*

I cannot doubt that Mr. Mill has in these passages laid down in general the true principles on which the relation of the State to the education of the people should be regulated, and that he has also indicated the ground on which, and on which alone, the interference of the State in the matter of popular education can be justified. Unfortunately in this country, fifty years ago, society in general was, at least educationally, in so crude and undeveloped a condition, "in so backward a state, that it could not or would not provide for itself any proper in-

* Mill "On Liberty," chap. v.

stitutions of education unless the Government undertook the task." If things had been then as they ought to have been, there would have been no need for Government interference on behalf of the elementary education of the working classes, and there would now be no need for a general system of Government grants or local rates in aid of schools, though public examinations would still be necessary, and children would have to be educated up to a proper standard of school knowledge before being allowed to go to manual labour. Nor would there be any protected, but at the same time rigidly controlled and minutely regulated, class of Government teachers, with special professional and pecuniary advantages, any State teachers' guild, any State-sealed monopoly; but all teachers, whether public or private, would compete on equal terms and their work be tested by the same examinations.

This is our ideal of national education. It ought, we think, to be a growth and not a Government department. And we cherish the hope, however just now probability may seem to be against it, that in the more distant if not in the nearer future our existing national arrangements in regard to education may show a gradual approximation towards that ideal. We do not expect the proportionate amount of public contribution from taxes or rates towards the education of the people continually to increase. We should as soon expect that that great disgrace and incubus, our national pauperism, should continually increase.

This then is the core of our question to-day—whether free and universal education by the State, and according to a standard and methods to be determined by the State, is or is not a principle of right, does or does not represent a claim which the State is bound to enforce both on behalf of itself and of the child—*i.e.*, of every child. We are not concerned at this point with the question as to what is to be done on behalf of those whom their parents neglect, or who have no parents, or whom their parents have not the means to educate. We would not only admit, but contend, that education, up to a certain minimum, is as

truly a necessary of life for a child as food and clothing, and, like food and clothing, must be provided at the public expense if other means of provision are not available. The analogy, here, is direct. No English statesman, no political writer in England, of higher authority than Robert Owen, has yet ventured to affirm that the children of the nation ought all to be fed and clothed, as well as taught, at the public cost. But many who have no idea of becoming Communists, many who probably have no conception that they are even now taking their stand, to borrow Mr. Fawcett's illustration, on one of the main "planks" of the platform of Communism, do claim that the State is bound itself to provide gratuitous, compulsory, universal education for all the children of the country in common schools. And it is this opinion which we object to with all possible earnestness and seriousness, as being not only in contradiction to the whole strain of politico-economical science from Adam Smith to the present time, but to the fundamental principles of our social economy—to the divine idea of the family and the nation.

The controversy in fact, as I have already intimated, resolves itself into the gravest and deepest question of social economy and national organisation. That question is this: Is the individual, or is the family, the unit, the germ-cell, in the living tissue of society, in the fabric and texture of which the nation, as a true organic whole, consists? Is the family a sacred and necessary element—is it the essential element—in civilised human communities, or is it not? If it be, the parent must still be held and left responsible for providing for the wants of his children, until they are able to maintain and guide themselves, and for their education as for their other wants. Parents must needs be the first educators of their children, whether for good or for evil. How long, according to the view of the State's right and responsibility which we are combating, ought a child to be left under its parent's care? At what age or stage of development is the State to step in and undertake the office of educating the child? The earliest

influences, as all know, are pre-eminently powerful in the tincturing of disposition and moulding of character. From which fact it seems to follow that the principle of State education for all children, if once frankly adopted, must lead its adherents all the lengths of ancient pagan theory, and that children, as soon as they are weaned, ought to be taken from their mother and placed in the public nursery. If we are not prepared to go such lengths, then must it be confessed that the parental right and responsibility in regard to the education of the child is a necessary element in the problem of national education, an element which cannot for a moment be lost sight of, and that the duty of providing education for the child comes as a primary obligation upon the parent. The parental right is a sacred thing, rooted in the divine order as well as universally recognised by human law. The parental duty is a solemn obligation, laid upon the parent alike by religion and conscience, and by the traditions and customs of all nations and ages. At the same time the right of the parent needs, doubtless, to be limited and conditioned by other rights—by the right of the child, by the just claims of the State. If the parent's right is recognised, the duty which corresponds with that right must not be neglected by the parent. The parent must act towards his child, in conformity with his responsibility before God and man. The child must be taught and trained so as to be fitted for his proper place in society. If the parent, though willing, is unable to provide for his child such instruction and training, he must, to the needful extent, be aided so to do. If he is morally incompetent and unfit, another or others must be authorised and enabled to discharge the duty for him. Society—*i.e.*, the State—has a claim, a right, a duty in regard to every child, happily latent, for the most part, but at any time liable to be called into force, a claim and a right less direct than that of the parent, less self-evident, less associated with sacred thoughts and motives, separate indeed from those natural ties which, above all others, ought to be both tender and holy, but not

less real or less binding than even the parental claim and right.

There devolves upon the State, accordingly, a secondary responsibility in regard to the education of the children of the people up to a certain necessary point, so that the future man or woman may be able to take its stand upon the plane, and to move forward along the pathway, of intellectual and moral—*i.e.*, of truly *human* progress. Perhaps, also, we may venture a step further, still moving in harmony with Mr. Mill's principles, and affirm that the State may, moreover, take such needful action, with a view to improve the education of the nation generally, as shall not infringe the true principles of individual liberty and family responsibility, if the general standard of education be, and, under the operation of ordinary causes, be likely to remain far inferior to what it ought to be and might well become, for the due and natural development of the national mind and resources. But any such action should, as we think, be taken in strict harmony with the principles Mr. Mill has laid down in the passages already quoted. The integrity of family life and parental responsibility, and the rights of individual liberty, self-development, and enterprise, are absolutely sacred, and must be held inviolate. If we are careful to concede to the State all that the State can rightfully claim, we must be no less careful to maintain for God, what belongs to God, for the parent and the family that which belongs to the parent and the family.

But if State intervention in respect to national education is to be so limited and conditioned as we have now seen, it is evident that any system of State-provided education for all classes is altogether inadmissible. Any such system must be in direct violation of the rights of the parent, and also of the financial equities which ought to regulate the relations of class with class. If we should try to imagine what might be the shape of a scheme of universal State-education for Utopia, which should not violate the conditions that have been stated, the general outline of such a scheme might, I suppose, be described as in the

following sentence :—All classes would have to be furnished with a suitable and adequate education, by means of a general educational provision of such completeness and flexibility as to meet the case of the whole nation in all its sections, and so also as to leave full liberty of individual enterprise, invention, and development to the teachers, and as to ensure that each family should contribute, towards the general cost of the total education provided, something like its fair share, according to the benefit received, and as also to ensure that the education imparted should include moral as well as intellectual training, but should not violate any right of conscience. Now, if such a national education could, *per impossibile*, be had and provided, it might perhaps be a desirable thing to provide such a universal education for the whole nation, by means of State legislation and administration, or it might, after all, be far from desirable. In Utopia there would be much, doubtless, to say on either side of such a question. But then the conception is the wildest dream—a dream full of contradictions and impossibilities. Nobody could really conceive—could in his sane mind even imagine—its practicability. In a Scandinavian or in a Russian village-community, indeed, the school could not but be as common as the village land. But a great nation is not a village-community. To solve an easy simple equation is one thing, quite another to solve an equation of high degree with many irreducible surds and imaginary quantities involved within its terms. We may easily conceive in a New England village of early times, such as Mrs. Stowe has described in her 'Oldtown Folks,' with its simple social organisation, its common level of rank, its superabundance of common land, and with the general dearth of competent teachers, that it might be a very economical and the only convenient plan to provide a common school, to assign land for its maintenance, to place it under the general direction of the minister of the parish, and to arrange that any final deficiencies which might at any time remain to be met in the school-fund, should be charged on the parents

of the scholars in proportion to the number of children sent to school. Till a comparatively recent period this was, in fact, the manner in which the common schools were generally managed and maintained in the United States. But to provide a suitable and adequate education for the whole English people, in all its grades and classes and callings, out of a common public revenue, or from any combination of public sources of revenue, whether called tax or rate or by whatever name, is quite another thing, and one which could not be accomplished at the same time efficiently and equitably, or after any fashion and on any theory without enormous public expenditure and incalculable waste.

The complicated financial injustice, the confusion of all ideas of financial equity involved in such a system, is one of the points that strike one most strongly.

It appears, indeed, as if the supply of medical attendance and medicines for all classes, according to ascertained demand, were quite as much a need to be met by common public provision as the supply of education to all classes. Nay, I fail to see why families might not as properly be rationed regularly out of public stores as educated universally out of the public purse.

The State provision of poor relief affords, no doubt, an analogy in favour of providing school aid, to whatever extent may be found necessary, for the really indigent and needy, but against providing out of the public purse education for those who have the means of paying for the needful education themselves. Moreover, as pauperism ought to diminish continually in a wisely ordered and prosperous State, so ought the public provision of education in cases of indigence to be a continually diminishing burden.

It is true that in Switzerland a system of common education has been established, maintained locally out of common local funds or taxes, which has been an educational success. But then the conditions of the problem in Switzerland are, in almost all respects, in contrast with the

conditions in England. That unique country has been from almost pre-historic times a federated aggregate of small and simple democratic republics, each of which is really a Sovereign State, and is itself again made up of still smaller and simpler republics, municipal or village republics. All classes in all these republics stand on the same level and are equally depositaries of the common sovereign power. And besides this civil and political equality, there is almost throughout the territory in each town or commune, a real social equality. There is no aristocracy in Switzerland; there is equally no *residuum*, no class of abject poor; all may be said to be proprietors, however small their property may often be, all to be civil and political integers, all to meet everywhere on equal terms. The country is preserved in this condition of lower class competency by perpetual depletion, by the traditional custom of going abroad to make at least a purse, if not a fortune, only returning home, if at all, after the foundation of an independent competency has been secured. What England has been to the enterprising Scottish countryman, all the countries of Europe, but, most of all, England, Italy and France have been to the Switzer. As couriers, waiters, valets, teachers, clerks, hotel-keepers, gardeners, and sometimes, to wit, in Rome and in France, as mercenary soldiers, this polyglot people has served the European world. A good school education has, therefore, from time immemorial been of the first importance to the Swiss, and its value has been universally understood. Not a classical education, not a scientific education, not, in any sense, a high education, but a sound, serviceable modern education, clear and correct, if limited in range. Each town accordingly, and each commune, provides such school education in common for its common wants, the education being, however, not merely secular, but religious also and denominational. There is no common system for the whole nation, no centralisation, no bureaucracy. Let it be added, that Switzerland is a very small country, as well as peculiarly primitive, and though not indigent, really poor.

Such a country can afford no example for England. As to its educational ideas and models again, it is dependent on Germany and France. Its light and life, its impulses and developments, are for the most part derived confessedly from Germany.

It is indeed alleged by some that gratuitous education is necessary in order to reach the lowest and most ignorant classes and to ensure regularity of attendance. Experience, however, altogether contradicts this plea. The "waifs and strays" of New York and the other great cities are counted by tens of thousands, and cannot be got to attend the common schools, free though they are. The ragged schools, the charity schools, the schools of the religious orders, are the only schools frequented by the children of the slums. The Five Points Mission and other such enterprises have to grapple with the evils of wandering, loafing, neglected children. In such schools they are to be found, as I have seen them there; but in the common schools they are not to be found. And as to the school attendance of children who belong naturally to the school-going classes, there is perhaps no great city in the world, except Chicago, where school attendance is more irregular than in New York. Certainly in England and the Teutonic nations of Europe there is nothing like it. The population of the city being 1,206,299, the average daily attendance was, according to the latest published returns (1880), 121,000. In Chicago, certainly a fair test case of what free schools can do for a city in the way of securing general education, and education especially for the lower classes, we find that, the population being 503,185, the average attendance in the common schools is returned as 44,201. In the ten years (1870–1880) the general illiteracy of the States had considerably increased, and, indeed, during the last forty years, notwithstanding emancipation of the slaves, illiteracy seems to have steadily increased in the Union. Nor is this chiefly owing, as the statistical authorities of the Union admit, to the effects of foreign immigration. It is a home evil and due to causes independent of immigration. Joseph Cooke, of

Boston, has thought it necessary to call attention very emphatically to this fact in one of his famous Monday Evening Lectures. As he states it, it is a fact that there are 6,239,958 persons in the United States, over ten years of age, or nearly one-third of the population over that age, unable to write. There are about a million whites between ten and twenty years of age unable to write.

It stands to reason indeed that when parents pay nothing for the education of their children they are likely, on an average, to value it less highly than if they had to pay for it, and to co-operate less carefully and zealously with the teacher in furthering the education of their child.

In Germany, in the year of revolutions, 1848, "free education" was introduced; but after a short trial it was found to work badly and was given up. Since then small fees, in considerate proportion to the small wages paid for labour in Germany, have been charged in the people's schools. In Switzerland, as we have seen, the education is gratuitous; but we have also seen how exceptional is the case of Switzerland. And it must be remembered that if in well-educated lower middle-class Switzerland the schools are free, in better educated Holland the Schools are not free.

Free schools, moreover, must for a great nation mean secular schools. If, as yet, this is not the case in Switzerland, this is only another exemplification of the special character of the educational question for Switzerland, of the exceptional simplicity of the problem. In America the free schools are for the masses of the people, and they have become almost universally secular. For the most part, the Bible is not even read. If it is read, that is all—mere reading—and the verses read are very few. Far otherwise was it in the palmy days of New England virtue, in the earlier days of American education. The consequence is that the common school system is increasingly disliked, not only by the Roman Catholic Church, but by many of other denominations, especially Episcopalians and Presbyterians; while the Methodists, though deeply pledged to the common

school system, submit with a bad grace to the exclusion of the Bible. Of course free education in France, and free education as proposed for England, is intended to do away not only with the Bible, but with all recognition of religion or of Divine government and influence.

Gratuitous education, however, except in Switzerland, where as yet it is denominational, has never been completely and thoroughly tried in any country. In France there will be rendings and explosions before it is actually established. In America higher education—except for the comparatively few public high schools scattered over the country, and of which comparatively few would in England be considered high—is given in voluntary schools and colleges, very often also in voluntary universities. Every year a larger proportion of the population is seeking in these voluntary and for the most part denominational institutions of superior instruction, for an education far in advance of any curriculum that can be found in the common schools. It would be strange indeed, therefore, if England were to incline towards a national and universal system of education intended to supersede and destroy the voluntary growth of education in the country.

Let me, here, before I conclude, be allowed particularly to refer to a point already noted in passing. A universal State education, compulsory and gratuitous, would dry up the springs of originality and genius in educational science. Where have our fruitful educational ideas sprung from? From free teachers and teaching; from such men as Roger Ascham, as Father La Salle, as Pestalozzi and Frœbel, as David Stowe and Thomas Arnold. Education would be stereotyped—variety and life would fade and vanish away, under a universal State system of gratuitous education.

But we are under no alarm. Nothing is needed but that Englishmen should understand the facts and the principles which bear upon the subject. Twelve years ago the School Boards—not only Birmingham but also London and some others—were the platform on which not only the battle of secularism but of free schools was fought. A determined

effort was made to force a free school experiment, and, when that failed, to keep fees down to the lowest point. But what has been the result? The average weekly fee paid in public elementary schools has been rising ever since the Elementary Education Act of 1870 became law, not only the average fee in voluntary but also in Board Schools. In 1870 the annual average payment by the parent on account of the child was 8*s.* 4¼*d.*, there being as yet no Board Schools; in 1883 the amount in voluntary schools had risen to 11*s.* 1*d.* In 1874 the corresponding annual average in Board Schools was 8*s.* 4*d.*, in 1883 it was 9*s.* 5½*d.*, being thirteen pence higher than the average paid in voluntary schools before there were any Board Schools.

In England then, as I hope, education in all its branches will remain free in the true sense of the word; free, but not gratuitous; free, but not disorganised; free, we will even say, but not unorganised. I look for the organisation of the great teaching profession, as a connected whole, with the Universities at its head. I even look forward to the speedy realisation of what Mr. Twining some years ago advocated as a desideratum to be supplied at an early period — viz., a "Central Technical University," which, though Government might favour, it would not in any way manage or control. I hope to see established, with such a centre, a self-developing, self-organised, self-sustained, system of industrial education—not without its noble gifts and endowments, but these gifts and endowments the free donations of generous Englishmen. Speaking in this building as a guest of the City Guilds' Central Institute, I cannot but cherish the highest hopes in this respect.

The State may undoubtedly render aid in such a process of self-development. It may co-operate, may help in the embodiment of approved ideas and projects for which the means are forthcoming, may afford a basis for correlation and voluntary combination. This it may do for education in every kind, as it has done both anciently and of late in regard to university life and growth, and as it has done especially, and will need to do still more, in

regard to medical education and diplomas. But the maintenance and the administration of all such institutions or organisations as have been suggested should be dependent on voluntary zeal and goodwill. The ideas which vitalise the whole apparatus of self-development, which inspire and animate the whole movement, which bring in and work out reform and improvement, and on which true progress, whether called educational or industrial, must always depend, should not be looked for from a Goverment Bureau or originate in the office of a Minister of Education, but should spring up among the living community of which such institutions as have been referred to should form an integral part. This would be growth in accordance with the vital instincts of England, and would re-act in vitalisation throughout the whole nation. This would be true to our English principle of self-government and self-reliance, out of which all our national greatness has grown.

I have not touched in this paper on the question of endowments, which is one altogether apart from that of a school-levy out of rates or taxes. The question of the wise and equitable employment of endowments is indeed difficult. An endowment has not seldom proved the ruin of a school. Wisely used, nevertheless, endowments afford the means, without involving any unjust charge on individuals, of extending the foundations of education in various directions, under legitimate public supervision, of assisting cases at once of special need and special merit, of providing special means and aids for culture and investigation as in subjects of scientific importance, of national concern, of universal human interest. By means of endowments one man may, of course, obtain an advantage over another: in this, as in other respects, inequality of fortune is incident to the lot of all men. But by endowments heavy charges are not systematically and needlessly brought on the provident for the sake of the improvident, on the struggling and heavily taxed for the sake of the relatively well-to-do and lightly taxed; no principle of Communism is incor-

porated with the fiscal economy of the country. There may indeed be something too much of this already incident to the existing elementary school system of our country. But as yet the principle appears in a limited and exceptional form, and its incidence may in years to come be more or less lightened. And what is already seen and felt of its burdensome unfairness, so far as it now operates, only strengthens the argument against adopting it as a governing principle in our future legislation.

ON THE REQUIREMENTS OF A TRULY NATIONAL SYSTEM OF HIGHER EDUCATION, AND THE PROPER RELATION OF THE OLD UNIVERSITIES TO SUCH A SYSTEM.

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The question of Higher Education is passing into a new phase, and demands are being pressed from unexpected quarters.

A feeling is growing that there ought to be a system of Higher Education as widespread and national as the system of Elementary Education.

It is true that the old Universities are now open to all without distinction of rank or creed, and that local colleges have recently sprung up in several of the large towns of the country.

The number of students in the Universities and local colleges, however, considering the population of the country, is quite insignificant. It is obvious that only a small proportion of young men and young women can afford to give up the three or four most important years of life wholly to

education, and yet in our system of education this class mainly is considered. How about the large majority who are compelled early to learn a trade or business, and begin earning their daily bread? Are the advantages and pleasures of a liberal education to be always beyond their reach?

This is the question which it is my purpose to attempt to answer.

I have the good fortune to be able to point to an educational scheme now in operation, which supplies with remarkable success the want I have just indicated, and which only needs consolidation and a wider extension to give us a very complete system of National Higher Education. I refer to the University Extension Scheme, or as it is now more commonly denominated, the University Local Lectures Scheme.

This scheme has been in operation ten years, and has brought to light the existence of a real need for Higher Education amongst the middle and especially the working classes of the country.

It was started by the University of Cambridge. Subsequently a separate society, the "London Society for the Extension of University Teaching," was formed to carry on the work within the limits of the Metropolis.

Last winter, courses were given at forty centres, varying in size from large towns like Derby, Preston, Norwich, and Newcastle-on-Tyne, to small towns like Kendal, Hexham, and Dorking, and mining villages like Consett in Durham, Seaton Delaval in Northumberland, and Hucknall Torkard in Nottinghamshire.

The total number of attendances in the two terms, Michaelmas and Lent, was 7878, and 1175 was the number examined at the close of the courses.

These figures do not include the results in the London district. The report of the "London Society" shows that last year lectures were given at over twenty centres, and that the total of attendances was 3421, and the number examined 349.

Taking the totals in connection with the Cambridge and London schemes, we have about 12,000 attendances and 1500 persons examined.

The subjects treated were, various periods of English History and English Literature, such as English History under the Stuarts, the French Revolution, English History in Shakespeare, Elizabethan Literature, the Ancient Classical Drama, &c., and such scientific subjects as Electricity, Geology, Chemistry, Physiology, Physical Geography, and Botany.

One of the chief characteristics of the scheme is the method of teaching adopted in connection with it.

A Northumberland pitman, who had attended the lectures for several terms, described the scheme as follows, in a paper read by him at a meeting in the North :—

"Any town or village which is prepared to provide an audience, and pay the necessary fees, can secure a course of twelve lectures on any subject taught in the University, by a lecturer who has been educated at the University, and who is specially fitted for lecturing work. A syllabus of the course is printed and put into the hands of students. This syllabus is a great help to persons not accustomed to note-taking. Questions are given on each lecture, and written answers can be sent in by any one, irrespective of age or sex. All the lectures, except the first, are preceded by a class, which lasts about an hour. In this class the students and the lecturer talk over the previous lecture. The written answers are returned with such corrections as the lecturer deems necessary. At the end of the course an examination is held and certificates are awarded to the successful candidates. These lectures are called University Extension Lectures. They impart, so far as each subject is treated, a University Education."

Another definition which has been given of the scheme is this :—"Advanced systematic teaching for the people, without distinction of rank, sex, or age, given by means of lectures, classes, and written papers during a connected course, conducted by men 'who believe in their work, and

intend to do it,' teachers who connect the country with the University by manner, method, and information."

It has been objected that the term University teaching, as applied to this work, is misleading, and that the lectures are often elementary.

The reply to this objection is that the essential characteristic of University teaching is the method of dealing with the subject, not the extent of ground covered. The teaching of the Universities is directed to the elucidation of the principles of the subject taught ; all the mental faculties of the student are brought into play, and he is placed on the high road to becoming himself an original investigator, if he has ability, and chooses to pursue his studies.

An important factor in producing this result is the personal intercourse between teacher and student.

If these are the characteristics of " University " teaching, then the scheme I am describing may with full justification be called the University Extension Scheme.

One student, an artisan, referring to the scheme, said :— " Higher Education does not consist in the mere acquisition of knowledge. It consists in the acquisition of knowledge coupled with the power to apply that knowledge to future purposes. The University Extension students declare that not only is their stock of knowledge increased, but that their reasoning faculties are immensely strengthened, and that they can grasp principles more vigorously than before, and apply them to the solution of problems."

Two years ago a course on Electricity was given at Newcastle-on-Tyne. The lectures were attended by the professional staff of the Swan Electric Light Company, as well as by a mixed audience, including working men and ladies, who had no previous knowledge of the subject. The electricians who attended the course obtained exactly the assistance they would have expected had they been able to go up to Cambridge to study the subject.

The Examiner in his report at the close of the course said :—

" For a scientific course of lectures to University stu-

dents, the syllabus scarcely admits of improvement. In accuracy of expression, and logical order of thought, it is nearly perfect. Considered by itself, the syllabus conveys the impression that the lectures were more adapted to candidates for the Natural Sciences Tripos, in their second or third year, than to an 'Extension' audience. This illusion is completely dispelled by the character of the work sent up by the candidates. The paper of questions was long and difficult. The marks obtained sufficiently indicate the character of the work. In only a few cases did some curious misconception indicate that the candidate had not received all the advantages of a University education."

The universal testimony was that without the "class," where questions could be asked, and difficulties explained, it would have been impossible for those not previously conversant with the subject to have kept up with the lectures. The need for the "class" does not arise, as has sometimes been supposed, from the inadequacy of the lecture, but from the difficulty of comprehending new ideas and principles on first hearing them stated. A student beginning a subject needs to familiarise his mind with much that is new, to view the fresh knowledge from different sides, and see its relation to his previous knowledge. Experience has shown that the method of the "class" meets this need in a very complete and satisfactory way. The lecturer must, however, possess the art of drawing the students to put their difficulties and to ask questions.

Quotations from the reports of Examiners might be multiplied to show that the work done in these courses is exceedingly thorough and satisfactory.

Although the University Extension Scheme has been steadily gaining ground, the financial difficulties which have to be overcome offer serious obstacles to its more rapid advance. Nothing has been brought out more clearly by the experience of the past ten years than the fact that it is not the absence of a demand for, or of interest in, education which prevents a wider extension of the movement, but the difficulty of obtaining funds to meet the expenses. The

average cost of a course, including local expenses, is £65 or £70. An audience of 200 at 5*s.* each would still leave a balance of £15 or £20 to be met by subscription. Educationally an audience of 200 persons attending a course of twelve lectures and classes must be regarded as a success. If only half that number were benefiting by a course, few would say that the educational results were unsatisfactory; yet the Committee would be hopelessly insolvent without a large subvention from external sources.

All the experience of the past shows that no scheme of education, elementary, intermediate, or higher, can be wholly self-supporting.

If some solution of the financial difficulty could be found, there is every reason to believe that the movement would spread into towns and districts where, by reason of poverty, the raising of a large subscription fund is impossible.

It may fairly be asked why the Universities themselves do not, out of their endowments, support the movement.

The recent University Statutes do not permit the Universities to apply any of the funds to purposes outside the University itself, and it is even doubtful how far the Colleges would be acting statutably in making grants for such purposes.

There can be no question that a great awakening of the intellectual life of the working classes is taking place, which has been much assisted and fostered in the north of England by the University Extension Scheme. A great opportunity is within our reach of offering help just when it is most needed, and of making the Universities what they ought to be, the centre and fountain-head of the intellectual life of the country.

The proofs of this mental awakening are abundant and unmistakable.

The Northumberland pitmen have for several years, under great difficulties, obtained courses of University lectures, on Political Economy, History, Mining, and Physical Geography. Last winter lectures were given at eight mining centres. The aggregate attendance was about 1400, which

means one in seventeen of the entire population. Many of the students walk miles along bad roads, after dark and in all sorts of weather, in order to attend the lectures. Although the price of the ticket for the course is only 1*s.*, the total cost to the artisan student is often considerably more.

The following items have to be considered:—cost of text books; postage of weekly papers to the lecturer, sometimes railway fare, and loss of wages by sacrifice of time on the lecture night.

Last winter, for instance, a young married pitman, who lived some distance from one of the Northumberland centres, arranged to leave work early on the lecture night and lost in consequence £1 6*s.* in wages. Another, who was working in the night-shift, went weekly from his home, about ten miles by rail, to Newcastle to attend a course on Literature, and found that, owing to loss of work, train fares, and fees, the cost to him was about £3.

The financial difficulty has pressed very heavily upon the pitmen, and if it had not been for substantial grants received from the coal owners and the Gilchrist Trustees, the scheme could not have been carried on.

An attempt was made some months ago to get the Miners' Trades Union to support the lectures out of the Union Funds.

A stirring appeal was issued by one of the members of the Union, which was circulated widely in the district. I wish space permitted me to reprint it here. One sentence, however, I may quote: "The committee is composed of working men—men mostly of your own association. Men who know how hard it is to acquire knowledge without the aid of good teachers. A four years' acquaintance with the scheme has enabled them to realise how thoroughly it meets the requirements of the working classes."

The question was discussed at the annual meeting of the Union in May, but the proposal was rejected, on the ground that the Labour Fund, having been raised for a special purpose, ought not to be diverted to any other purpose.

This repulse did not daunt the educational committee; the agitation is still going on and a proposal, modified in detail, but involving the main principle, that education ought to be taken up and supported by the Trade Organisation, will be submitted at the next meeting. The ablest and most earnest pitmen are thoroughly persuaded that it is in the direction of education they must move next, and the struggle will not cease till the desired end is attained.

At York, Derby, and other towns, artisans attend the lectures in considerable numbers and take a prominent part in the local management of the scheme.

The Industrial Co-operative Societies, especially of the north and north-west of England, are engaged in discussing the qnestion of education, and the number of those who believe that the societies ought to provide the means of higher education for their members is steadily growing.

From the facts already mentioned, and a multitude of others that have come under my notice, I draw the following conclusions, as to the requirements of a system of higher education which shall be truly national :—

1. It must supply the needs of those engaged in business and in handicrafts; to accomplish which, the teaching must be given in the evening.

2. The subjects should be mainly those that correspond to the modern development of study at the Universities, viz. Literature, History, Economics, Natural Science, and Art, in the sense of art-appreciation, not art-production.

3. The method of teaching should be of the "University" type, *i.e.* the aim should be to give a thorough grasp of principles and a real mental training; to that end there should be class-meetings in connection with the lectures, for personal intercourse between the lecturer and students, and constant paper-work at home.

4. A curriculum of study should be arranged, extending over a period of years, which would give a student, who adopted it, what might fairly be called a liberal education in Humanity, Science, and Art.

5. Students passing through the complete course of study

should at the close receive some University recognition, such as a degree.

To make the point clear, let us take an instance. Suppose a group of towns to arrange with the University to take the complete curriculum, say two courses of lectures and classes—one on a scientific subject and one on some subject in literature or history, in each of the two terms for eight or ten years. Let us suppose a lad who is serving his apprenticeship to a trade to enter as a student. He will attend the two courses, which will occupy two nights a week, and on the other nights he will work a couple of hours a night in preparation for the lectures and in doing the weekly papers set by the lecturer. At the end of each term he will enter for the examination held at the close of the course, and presumably, if he possesses fair ability, and is industrious, will obtain a University certificate. The lectures will only go on for three months before and three months after Christmas. Special further work in the subjects will be set for the summer months, and the student will continue to correspond with the lecturer, and will get his work tested by examination-papers set at intervals. Thus in a period of eight or ten years a very wide range of study could be covered by a student working steadily a couple of hours a night. At the age of twenty-one to twenty-five the student would find himself not only master of his trade or craft, but also with a liberal education, equal as far as range of subjects and thoroughness of study is concerned to the education he might have obtained during three years spent at the University.

It is true that the proportion of young men and young women who would possess the necessary determination and industry to go through the complete curriculum would be small, but a very large number would make some kind of beginning and would get an appreciable benefit.

There remains one serious difficulty, however—the financial one: how is that to be solved?

Government aid is already given to night schools. These are no longer required to teach reading, writing, and arith-

metic. It is unreasonable to expect working men to defray all the cost entailed by providing higher education. If, therefore, the Government would recognise such teaching as I have described so far as to give a grant on the average attendance, the financial difficulty which now bars the way would be removed. It is true that the need for private subscription would not altogether cease, but the lectures would be brought fairly within reach of scanty and poor populations.

I have said that the grant should be on the average attendance, and not on results, because it is essential to the success of the scheme that the lecturers should be unfettered in their treatment of the subject, and that every temptation to "cram" should be avoided.

All that would be necessary would be for the Education Department to announce that a grant of 5*s.* or 7*s.* 6*d.* a head would be given in support of full courses of lectures and classes held in the evening to suit the convenience and meet the wants of persons engaged during the day, provided the course were given under the immediate supervision of one of the Universities, and that an examination were held at the close of the course which was satisfactory to the University authorities. The entire educational responsibility should be thrown upon the Universities.

I have now stated the main idea, and I am only concerned to make that clear. The details are doubtless capable of indefinite modification. The point of practical importance is, that a system of higher education has sprung up naturally and spontaneously, which is growing and proving by its success that it is singularly well adapted to supply the existing want. With greater consolidation, further University recognition, and adequate financial aid, it would grow into a great and thorough system of National Higher Education.

What I have suggested then is, University management with State aid. The State aid should not replace, but merely supplement local effort.

Any Government organisation and aid that rendered

local effort either unnecessary or impossible would be a mistake.

Aided by the State, in the manner indicated, the system could be made truly national. Without such aid the work will assuredly go on, but only in those towns and districts where funds can be obtained without serious difficulty.

ON SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS.

By Dr. BOSSCHA,

Director of the Polytechnic School at Delft; Delegate for the Netherlands.

THE law for the regulation of Secondary Instruction, which was passed in the Netherlands in 1863, has considerably raised the standard of education there in a few years. Its most important stipulation is that which orders the establishment of the so-called "hoogere burgerscholen." These schools, destined for boys of 12 to 17 or 18 years of age, may be considered to run parallel in the general system of public education with the "gymnasiën" (colleges), in which boys of the same age are prepared for a university education. The current of young men from the middle and higher classes of the population, who, after leaving the elementary schools, wish to continue their education, is now divided between the "hoogere burgerscholen" on the one hand, and the "gymnasiën" on the other.

Before 1863 education which went beyond that of the elementary schools, could, save in the "gymnasiën," only be obtained in the so-called French schools, private establishments, which in an earlier and still more imperfect state of affairs, derived their name from that which distinguished them from the elementary schools, viz., they gave instruction in the French language, and afterwards in the English and German languages.

The law on secondary education made a distinction be-

tween "hoogere burgerscholen" with a course of five, and those with a course of three years. The latter comprises the three lowest courses of the schools having a five years' course. According to the law, the State had within five years after its promulgation, to establish 15 "hoogere burgerscholen," of which at least 5 were to have courses of five years. Within that period 15 State-schools were at work, 8 of which had a course of five years. Moreover, municipal authorities had established 22 "hoogere burgerscholen." These 37 "hoogere burgerscholen" had 2741 scholars. Since 1868 the number of schools had been considerably increased. Besides the "hoogere burgerscholen" for girls, which resulted from the action of the municipal authorities about 1870, there are now 61, 31 of which have a course of five years, the number of scholars is nearly 5000.

In the schools with a course of 5 years, as a rule instruction is given during 32 hours every week. The two highest classes have generally two hours more per week. Of the 164 hours per week, which the 5 classes produce together, on the average 60 are employed for mathematics, chemistry, physics, mechanics, cosmography, and natural history; 84 for Dutch, French, English, German, geography, history, political and commercial sciences; and 20 for freehand- and geometrical drawing.

It is easy to understand that the opening of a new direction in education to that of the "gymnasiën," caused the number of scholars of the latter to diminish. Indeed, formerly many were sent to the "gymnasiën" because there was no other suitable way of giving a really developing education to boys of twelve or thirteen years of age. This may have contributed considerably to give existence to the prejudice that no education of importance could be obtained without the study of Greek and Latin. This supposition is indeed true so long as there were, above the elementary schools, no other proper schools than the Latin schools. Till 1863 it *was* true in the Netherlands, but had to be given up when the "hoogere burgerscholen" had been established.

The peculiar circumstances in which, after the said period, university education found itself during some years, have co-operated to give a positive proof that the knowledge and development which is necessary for successful university-studies can be obtained even without the so-called classical education, e.g., without Latin and Greek. For in 1863 the stipulation was still in force that young men who had not studied at a "gymnasium" could be admitted to the University, if they could only pass an examination for their admission before a committee of examiners from the literary faculty at every university. As may easily be understood, this examination had, through the co-operation of different influences, in reality become so easy, that a cursory study of a few months was sufficient to acquire so many Latin and Greek words as were necessary to be admitted to the University.

The consequence was that many young men, who were attracted by the thorough instruction in the natural sciences which was given at the "hoogere burgerscholen," to the study of natural philosophy or medicine, after having left the "hoogere burgerschool," found admission to the University, where they entered upon their studies with a very slight knowledge of the ancient languages, but thoroughly prepared for their own profession, with nothing that bore resemblance to a classical education, but with much that had been derived from the present standpoint of science and of real life.

A deserving director of a "hoogere burgerschool," Dr. de Loos, at Leyden, had taken the trouble of making careful observations on the results with which students of this category completed their studies at the University. He has been able to ascertain that until 1883 no fewer than 600 young men from the "hoogere burgerscholen" had passed to the University. In reality the number must have been greater, since no information could be obtained from some schools. Of these 600, 197 had at that time completed their studies; all the others were still studying,

and of these 259 had already passed one or more examinations. Among those that had left the University, there were: 104 promoted to be doctors in the natural sciences or medicine; 38 to be doctors in jurisprudence; 1 to be doctor in literature; 38 had obtained diplomas as surgeons; 6 as apothecaries; 6 as ministers; 4 had obtained diplomas which enabled them to give secondary instruction.

The successful education of such a large number of ex-scholars of the "hoogere burgerscholen" may be deemed sufficient proof that natural philosophy and medicine may be studied with quite satisfactory results without a classical education. The number of doctors in jurisprudence issued from the "hoogere burgerscholen" is also by no means insignificant.

But much more eloquent than these numbers, some further particulars bear evidence of the quality of the studies. On looking through the statistics of Dr. de Loos, it is, for instance, at once apparent how great a number of ex-scholars of the "hoogere burgerscholen" were appointed by the professors as assistants in their laboratories and hospitals. Of course the professors chose for that purpose those among their disciples in whose capabilities they had the greatest confidence. It appears that in 1882 not less than twenty places of assistants, by far the majority of those available, were filled by ex-scholars of the "hoogere burgerschool." Of the 197 who had left the University, 49 have already been appointed as teachers, 6 have been appointed professors at a Netherlands University, and among these is 1 professor of Roman law.

Doubtless the statistics of Dr. de Loos, if continued and completed, with regard to the 403 who were studying still in 1882, would bear still stronger evidence. I will only quote a couple of instances. Of the professors in the physical faculties of the Universities, who were appointed after the time when the new law on university education came in force, the *majority* belong to those who were not educated in a "gymnasium." This very year an ex-scholar

of the "hoogere burgerschool" has been appointed by the Senate of the University doctor "honoris causa" in the mathematical sciences, and of the 12 subjects of the Netherlands, who between 1879 and 1884 received the honorary distinction of being chosen members of the physical division of the Royal Academy of Science, 9 had not received a classical education, and among those *six* belonged to the young corps, already issued from the "hoogere burgerschool."

It is a cause of lament that the new regulation of university education has rendered it impossible to obtain further proof of a thorough study of mathematics and physics, a general education which aims at the knowledge of modern sciences, being a better preparation for the study of exact sciences than the five or six years spent in studying ancient Greek and Latin authors. The new law, passed under the predominating influence of the ideas of those who had themselves enjoyed a classical education, stipulated that after the 1st of October, 1881, only those young men could be admitted to the acquisition of academical degrees who have passed the final examination of the "gymnasiën." As the exact sciences occupy in the system of these establishments such a subordinate place that it can hardly be called a proper preparation for real academical studies, it is to be feared that now a *negative* proof will be given of the study of Greek and Latin being an insufficient preparation for those who wish to qualify themselves in natural philosophy or in medicine.

Mons. LIARD briefly described the organization for Secondary Education existing in France.* They had *lycées* which were supported by the State; and colleges which were supported by towns and communes, and which also had subventions from the State. The number of pupils in

* For further information on the same subject by M. Liard, see p. 399.

the *lycées* varied from 600 to 1200. In France all young men were compelled to give their services to their country, and they were also bound to pass through a course of education. The programme of National Education was settled by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Conseil Supérieur. Nine members of the Conseil Supérieur were appointed by the President of the Republic, on the nomination of the Minister of Public Instruction; other members were appointed by various learned bodies, including the *Institut*, which was in France the great regulator of Literature. Primary and Secondary Education were both represented on the Council. Secondary Classical Education was making progress, and the necessity had been recognised of making it comprise, history, geography, and living tongues. In his idea the study of living tongues was being introduced too late, but he believed that, if in future years his son should have the honour of being a delegate to a similar Conference at London or Berlin, he would speak in English at London and in German at Berlin. In France they had no universities, but they had the Faculty of Medicine for the training of men who had already passed through a course of Secondary Education to become doctors; they had the Faculty of Law for men destined to become lawyers; and there was also the Faculty of Science and Letters for the instruction of those who were to follow a career of instruction. In 1880 an organization for the Secondary Education of girls was established, but it was not desired in France to produce learned women, and that was evidenced by the fact that Molière's comedies was one of the first books they put into the hands of their daughters.

ON THE COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF ARRANGING THE COURSE OF STUDY IN THE VARIOUS SCHOOL CLASSES ON LINES OF SUBJECTS APPOINTED FOR LOCAL UNIVERSITY AND OTHER GENERAL EXAMINATIONS.

By Rev. R. B. POOLE, B.D.,

Headmaster, the Modern School, Bedford.

THE subject of this short paper will be "The Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of arranging the Course of Study in the various School Classes on Lines of Subjects appointed for Local University or other General Examinations." I shall take it for granted that the mention of the "Local University Examinations" by the promoters of this Conference, implies that I should treat of examinations of that class or grade, and not of those of a higher character, as for instance the leaving certificates of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board, which are intended more especially for those who either intend to go to the University, or who have reached a sufficiently high educational standard to do so if they choose.

Of all these examinations the Oxford and Cambridge "locals" are the best known and the most widely patronised, especially those of the University of Cambridge, with which personally I am at present the best acquainted. The number of entries for these has been, I believe, always very large, and certainly of late years very far greater than those for the corresponding examination of the sister University. Several reasons have no doubt combined to produce this state of things, but the principal have been the somewhat inconvenient time of the year at which the Oxford locals have been held, the higher fee charged for seniors, and perhaps a greater rigidity in insisting on the taking up of the religious knowledge section.

As most of those present will be aware, the Cambridge local examinations take place just before the Christmas vacation, thus giving some special object to work for during the third term of the year, while for most schools an object is supplied for the first and second terms in the ordinary Midsummer examination and inspection. The Oxford locals on the other hand were, until this year, held in May, a time which was very unfortunately chosen, inasmuch as it did not give an opportunity of carrying on regular work until schools broke up for the holidays, but left masters and boys at somewhat of a loose end for about a month in the summer. This has, I think, been the chief cause of the comparative want of success of these examinations, although the other points previously mentioned have been subsidiary to it. It should, however, be here noticed that this main objection, namely the time of the Oxford locals, has been altered in the present year, and that they are now held at much more convenient times, viz., June and July, that the fee for seniors has been reduced from 30*s.* to £1, and that the regulations with regard to religious knowledge have been modified. Moreover, it is now possible to arrange for the examination of schools in connection with the local examinations, and that on a wide, and, as it seems to me, a very suitable basis. This new plan will, I think, bear good fruit, and induce a larger number of schools and candidates to enter than has been the case in previous years.

Other examinations of the same kind are those of the College of Preceptors, the Society of Science, Letters, and Art, &c., but as these are very similar in character, though hardly of such high standing or standard, it will be sufficient for my purpose if I speak throughout of the advantages and disadvantages of the University Local Examinations, and in doing so I shall, before concluding, make some allusion to the scheme lately agreed to by the authorities of the University of London for the establishment of an examination of a similar kind, though with a different curriculum ; one which will, it seems to me, obviate the

disadvantages of the present system to a very great extent without losing its substantial advantages.

And first I will speak of some of the benefits which arise from these examinations. There can be no doubt that they have done a great deal to raise the standard of intermediate and middle-class schools, especially those of a somewhat inferior character, which owed no particular responsibility to any council or governing body, but only to parents, who in some cases did not much care about the progress of their sons and daughters, in some cases were incompetent to judge, and were not infrequently misled by flattering reports which they had no means of verifying for themselves. The very fact that in England any one may set up for a schoolmaster without of necessity having the requisite qualifications, or even caring at all about his profession, has made the work which the promoters of these examinations have accomplished of a really high value to the country in general. For when one school in a town or neighbourhood began to send in its boys for these examinations, it was not unnatural that the parents of pupils at other schools of a like character should enquire why their children were not prepared for a similar test, and if the same state of things continued, or if excuses were made, the parents very naturally began to think that there was something rotten in the state of a school which could not do what its neighbours did. Then if under pressure of circumstances boys were sent in, it became most desirable from the schoolmaster's point of view that they should pass ; if they did not, or if another establishment in the neighbourhood was more successful, his school would be sure to suffer. Hence a general improvement of work in many places was the result, and these examinations afforded something like a general test for schools of a given class throughout the country, for which all which had any pretensions to efficiency were obliged to enter. Thus, the establishment of these examinations has been decidedly stimulating to such schools, and has distinctly improved the education given in them.

The next advantage which may be mentioned, combined however with many disadvantages which will be noted hereafter, is that a curriculum, which certainly cannot be altogether bad, is provided for those schools where otherwise the selection of books and subjects might be far from good. It insures, or should insure, a fairly accurate knowledge of elementary English grammar and arithmetic, decent writing, spelling, and reading, a tolerable knowledge of the accidence of Latin, Greek, French, and German, if these subjects be taken up, the reading of some standard authors in these languages, the steady progress of a school through the history of England and elementary geography, besides a general direction of studies in other matters. There is in many cases a considerable advantage in this, as there is a possibility, when the Principal looks more to making his school popular than really good, or thinks more of pecuniary success than of efficiency, of the curriculum being carelessly arranged and badly carried out.

A third and very decided advantage is that those who pass the University Local Examinations are (with certain restrictions in some cases) excused various qualifying examinations such as the preliminary law, and those which are intended to test the general education of candidates for the profession of surgeons, chemists, &c. This is a very useful arrangement, as the fact of holding one of these certificates saves a young man from getting up some classical author, and other general subjects, after he has left school, at a time when he is anxious to commence the studies which belong specially to the profession which he has chosen.

I may also add that it is a good thing to accustom a boy in early life to a strict and well-ordered examination, both as a matter of discipline and also with a view to familiarising him with those rules and regulations which are adopted in those public competitions of which we have so many in the present day.

But I must now pass on to some of the disadvantages which seem to me to result from these examinations. The first of these which I will mention is, that there is a fear of

"cramming" the various subjects by going over them again and again, especially the translation, until they are known almost by heart. It is not an unheard-of thing for a candidate to write down more translation than is asked for, or even to write out an entirely wrong passage. This has, however, been greatly checked by insisting on the "unseen" passages being fairly done in order to obtain a pass. But still it often happens that boys begin the set subjects in January and go over them again and again till Christmas, and thus the amount of reading got through is smaller than it otherwise would be, or than is desirable. The same remark applies to history. Here, too, there is a tendency to get up the subject by means of cards and analyses, many of which are printed and sent round to those of us who send in boys for these examinations, in the hope that we may use them. I think it will be almost universally allowed that it is not desirable to encourage this style of teaching. In this subject, too, nothing is ever set but *English* history, so that a boy may pass through his school career without any knowledge whatever of the history of other countries, except what he learns incidentally.

Again, a good deal may be said by way of criticism upon the books selected, especially in Latin and French. In the former language Virgil and Cæsar have been invariably set ever since I have known anything about these examinations, and hence a boy who remains for some time in a school which constantly prepares for the locals may never read any other Latin author. I do not mean to say that these are not suitable, although Virgil is very difficult for the class of boys who go in for the locals, but I certainly think that some variety would be good.

In French it is even worse. Saintine's little book, 'Picciola,' has been set three times in seven or eight years, and I cannot think that it is the right sort of book for the purpose. But even if it were, it cannot be well that so many boys should have been engaged on one work only for two successive years, a very large period in their school life, and thus be practically excluded from reading any other French

literature whatever. Besides, they are not likely to imbibe a fondness for a language of which all they know is one author, which has been drummed into them constantly for so long a time. There is, too, another drawback in this system of set books, viz., that a master has no chance of indulging his own tastes in the selection of his subjects, and therefore is not likely to make his teaching so interesting as he otherwise might. A further disadvantage is that sometimes the books set are of very disproportionate length. This is especially the case this year. The French subject is far too short, and the German far too long; in fact, in four hours a week it is nearly impossible to get through the whole of the latter as set for the seniors. The Religious Knowledge subjects again are more in quantity than most of us like to see in schools where there is a conscience clause, as in them it is scarcely possible to give more than an hour a week to Bible teaching. The Higher Mathematics, too, set for the juniors can scarcely be got through without giving a longer time to them than can well be spared, consistently with the general curriculum of the school.

Now the result of all this is, either that the school is split up into specialised sections, each of which takes up a minimum number of subjects in order to secure a pass in them, which is very detrimental to general education, and troublesome to arrange; or an attempt is made to reach a general level, just sufficient to pass, to the exclusion of excellence in any particular. The only alternative I know is that which I adopt myself—viz., to arrange the school curriculum as far as possible independently for the first two terms of the year, and to devote the third term to the subjects for the locals, which are taught as ordinary form work. I have not been able to carry this out in French and German, as the subjects are generally too long for one term's work.

The plan which I have always advocated with reference to these examinations is that there should be no set books in languages at all, but that the whole examination in them

should be unseen. This must find out the best boys and the best teaching, for surely the object of learning a language (independently of the mental discipline) is to acquire a knowledge of its words and constructions, so that one may be able to construe passages of it when met with. There are, I know, difficulties in the way, but if great care were taken to select easy passages, the English of difficult words given, and a general clue to the drift of the whole printed at the top, I think it would be far the most satisfactory solution of the difficulty.

And this is one great feature in the Local Examinations which the University of London proposes to establish, and one which will make them very valuable as real tests of knowledge. The curriculum of a school will in no way be interfered with, while the results of the teaching will certainly be tested in a most thorough and complete manner ; and I cannot help thinking that, if they want to keep up the position which they have so long held in these examinations, the older Universities will have to adopt the same plan. If they do, they will probably hold their own, as in other respects their programme will be more suitable to the general run of schools, for I fear that at present the science, on which the University of London proposes to insist will be a stumbling-block to many. But if they do not, I think that a large number of the best schools will enter for the proposed London examination. For it would be *primâ facie* evidence in favour of a school if its authorities had sufficient confidence to send in their pupils for examination in unseen rather than in prepared books.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. H. M. MacCracken (University of New York), said he had come to the Conference as a learner, and only incidentally as a communicator of ideas, and he had been very much interested in the address of Mr. Roberts on the system of higher education. The promotion of the system

of liberal or higher education required the dissemination of information freely and inexpensively concerning all that was being done in the matter with respect to courses of higher education. He had made some enquiry since he had been in England at public schools, such as Rugby and Eton and the like, as to the exact subjects which each class of boys was called upon to study each year they were in the school ; and he had not yet been able to find that out. He had been told that there were no published statements of the entire courses of study. In the course of his official duties he found it necessary to call upon each one of the colleges in the United States of America for what was known as their annual handbook or circular. There were about 500 of such colleges for boys alone, being about one for every 100,000 of their people, which was nearly the same proportion that the Gymnasia of Germany bore to the population of Germany. He found in every case, with the exception of some Roman Catholic Institutions, that they had handbooks or circulars which told him precisely what each boy would be called upon to study each session of each year he was there, and they had not failed to send those circulars at no cost to him except a penny for a stamp for the payment of return postage. As a seeker of information in Great Britain he would like exceedingly to be put by any one there upon the track by which he could find out what each one of the schools or colleges—he meant those inferior to the universities—was doing for each boy that was under their care. He was somewhat acquainted with the calendars of the universities, and he might say these were more satisfactory than anything he had found concerning such schools as Rugby. But yet the calendars of the universities still left a great many desiderata to one who was enquiring what was being done by students in attendance at each of the colleges of the universities, especially Cambridge and Oxford. In connection with the promotion of education in the United States of America, it was no obstacle whatever (contrary rather to the opinion expressed by the first lecturer that morning) that the instruction in

general had been made entirely free. He himself had been connected with a College which charged a high tuition fee, but yet such universities as the University of the State of Michigan, or the University of the City of New York, were just as productive of stimulus, although they charged not one penny for their undergraduate instruction, as universities were that charged hundreds of pounds a year. The same was also true of preparatory and primary schools. If they looked at one of the maps of illiteracy published by the United States, they would see that the illiteracy of the United States circled round two centres, one being the great cities, where the vast majority of the population were either from the south of Ireland, Poland, and the like, or were the children of parents from those countries. The other centre of illiteracy was in the Southern States, where they had a white population, as well as a black, that were brought up under the slave oligarchy, but were persistently denied free schools and free education. The City of Boston and Suffolk County had in 1870 one-fourth larger share of the "illiterates" of Massachusetts than of the population of the same. So was it with every large city, by reason of foreign immigration. The Southern States on the census charts of 1870 contain *all* the very dark spots, indicating over 20 per cent. of illiterates—save perhaps two small spots in regions bordering the South, while the light portions of the charts, indicating less than 5 per cent. of illiterates, are all in the States that maintain Free Schools, and especially in those States that have stood by Free Schools most stoutly. Further, and most conclusively, upon this question of the effect of free tuition upon illiteracy, while the population of the United States from 1870 until 1880 increased over 20 per cent., the number of persons unable to read increased less than 9 per cent.; while the population of Ohio, an admirably representative Free School State, increased very nearly one-fifth, her total of illiterates diminished over 6 per cent. and her illiterates of between ten and fifteen years of age decreased more than 55 per cent.—such was the effect there of the thoroughly Free

School on the rising generation. So that the illiteracy of the United States was in no way whatever to be attributed to their throwing wide open their schools without any fee or charge. Twenty-five years ago he was superintendent of the free education of a certain district of the United States, ever since which time he had watched the Free School closely. In speaking on that subject he was speaking, therefore, of that whereof he knew. Both in their cities and their country districts the people, who, like himself would like to see a great deal more religious teaching in the schools, were yet willing to lay aside a good portion of that religious teaching relegating it to the Sabbath School and to the home, in order that they might keep their schools free, and bring all the people into them; and especially that they might assimilate to themselves the hundreds and thousands of children of Germans, Frenchmen, Hungarians, Poles, Italians, and South Ireland people who were pouring in upon them. That was their only hope for the self-government of the Republic.

Mr. STORR, in referring to a remark made by Mr. MacCracken, said he would be happy to furnish such information as that gentleman required regarding his own school, the Merchant Taylors.

Oberschulrath Dr. VON SALLWÜRK (having thanked the assembly who yesterday had shown their indulgence in hearing his English address, and who would now permit him to speak in his own language, continued in German as follows): If M. Liard said that they in France, being "a people of the Latin race," and therefore feeling a nearer relation to the Roman antiquity, must necessarily give a broad space to the old languages in the curriculum of their colleges, he was obliged to state that the gymnasia or colleges in all countries were the product of the sixteenth century, where all peoples of the civilized Europe had taken up anew the culture of Greece and Rome. Since that period the culture of those ancient peoples had never ceased to be an essential and inseparable part of our own culture, and therefore our higher schools must stand on this ground in England

and Germany, as well as in France. But after the times of the Renaissance a vast amount of new science had grown up which our higher schools did not quite foresee, but to which they yet gave a rather unwilling admittance. This was the cause why they in Germany had now three or four sorts of higher schools (Gymnasien, Realgymnasien, Realschulen, Höhere Bürgerschulen), and that none of them could quite satisfy what people demanded from higher schools. Now he knew that in France they had tried to fill up the vacancy left in the development of these schools since the sixteenth century. So it would undoubtedly be gratefully accepted if one of the French members of this section would answer these questions—1st, whether the new curriculum of the French colleges had proved satisfactory, especially in regard to the "classe de philosophie;" 2nd, whether it was possible to give a sufficient instruction in Greek and Latin in the few weekly lessons the new curriculum had left for these subjects.

Dr. WORMELL said they had been asked to consider the organisation of intermediate and higher education, and the remark which had been made about information occurred to him as having a very important bearing upon the way in which Government might assist intermediate and higher education. In order to be quite clear, he would refer to what he considered to be the principal danger before them in connection with Government control of that kind of education. He could picture two perfect conditions of education in the country. One in which all the parents had the ability and intelligence necessary to educate their own children, and the time available for the purpose; and another in which the parents should have nothing whatever to do with the education of the children, but the State should take charge of them, and put them through a course of training according to a universal system. Which of these ideals should be the one they were to aim at? Suppose the latter one, for instance, were to be adopted, and to be worked with perfect success for a sufficiently long time, what would be the result? Men and women, he supposed,

would think and act alike ; but life under such circumstances would be robbed of all variety, and would not be worth living. In the other case, family differences and characteristics, would be made more and more prominent, and more and more permanent. If it were possible to adopt that ideal, no doubt here in England, with our national characteristics our love of home influence for instance, we should consider that the best. It could not be adopted, because we must do things by division of labour. The science and art of education was so extensive, that half a lifetime was now required to master it, so that parents must seek for professional assistance in the matter. But they should, in seeking to organise intermediate and higher education, give the parent as much liberty as was possible, doing nothing to deprive him of the right of exercising his judgment, and of directing with the professional assistance he might get, the education of his children. There was a tendency in these days to deprive parents of that right. How was the Government, therefore, to organize the higher education and at the same time to interfere as little as possible with the freedom of action of an intelligent parent? Disseminate information. It seemed to him that was the answer, and at the present moment it was a sufficient answer. They should do something like what was done in America. It was his privilege to receive very frequently from the Bureau of Education in America circulars of information, and it was astonishing what care that Bureau of Education seemed to take to collect information from all parts of the world, to print it, and disseminate it throughout the States and other countries. He wished our Government would do the same. If, as a teacher in England, he could have such information with regard to his own country as was supplied by those circulars with regard to America, it would be an enormous help ; and any parent, anxious to secure what he considered was the best education for his children, must feel that his greatest need at the present moment was this kind of authoritative, guaranteed information with regard to schools.

Mr. PHILIP WELLS wished to make a few remarks with reference to test-books or set books at local examinations. He had been teaching for forty-three years, and during the period in which they had had local examinations he had been a considerable sufferer. Most of his teaching, which was the preparation of boys for public schools, was utterly incompatible with preparing them for local examinations. The books, for instance, in which candidates for public schools were expected to pass were generally not the books required for local examinations. They would see what a disadvantage he and others like him were at through working in that way. For many years he had been asking that those set books should be discontinued. The light was appearing in the horizon, and he hoped dawn was near. It was just appearing, and through the University of London, who were now about to give no set books, they would be able to do what they had long been wishing to do, which was to teach a language. He could assure them that for a number of years instead of teaching Latin he had been teaching Cæsar, as if the whole of Latin literature was Cæsar, and perhaps a modicum of Virgil. The use they made of Latin in modern languages was to know the derivation of words, and to know something of other writers, he hoped, than Cæsar or Virgil. No wonder they were narrow in their thoughts if the whole of the instruction they had received in Latin had been Cæsar and Virgil. He had been working in his own place in St. John's Wood for twenty-five years, with fifty boys and a number of boarders, who kept him amused during his leisure hours, as they were sometimes called, and he was still so engaged, and therefore he had little time to attend public meetings or make his grievances known. For these reasons he was glad to have the opportunity of saying a few words upon that difficulty. Private schoolmasters had their crotchets, and one of his was printing, another carpentry, and he had also a wish to teach the Latin language, which he had been trying to do for forty-three years. He thought that the Latin language to be taught sensibly must be taught

as the tree grew; roots must develop the trunk, the trunk must develop the branches; the branches must develop flowers, and the flowers must develop the fruit. They would therefore see how he was beset. Instead of being able to teach Latin, he was only allowed to take an isolated branch, and not the trunk or the root from which the branch sprung. Latin was composed of 1500 roots at the most, and from that very small beginning they developed the whole of the beautiful structure that had given minds such as those of Virgil, Cicero, Horace, and many others, the power of expressing most beautiful thoughts which they were glad to receive, to husband, and to love. What had been done through the method of set books? He had not been allowed to teach the Latin language, he had only to teach a limited vocabulary; and that limited vocabulary had been so hacked and hacked by crammers that they never knew whether a boy knew Latin or not, even if he passed. What he was going to say would tell against the London University, though not in the scheme they were proposing, but only in the scheme they had been following, and which he hoped would be changed. One of his pupils, who was seventeen or eighteen years of age, who was a sharp fellow, and had been away from him some time, came back to be prepared for the London examination. He asked him what languages he would take in. He knew the languages, one of which was German. He asked the pupil whether it was not very likely he would have to take up teaching, and he replied he was afraid he would. The point to which he wished to call attention was this—he said to the pupil: "My dear fellow, you are a sharp fellow, just let us see what a mighty thing all this talk is about the Greek language You have three months for it. You know no Greek, you have never touched it; let us prove to the world that three months is quite enough to get up this mighty modicum of Greek required by the University of London." He did it, and he passed in it, and that would confirm the statement that the method of set books was an

utter failure, and was not fair to private schoolmasters, who had methods and systems that they thought were good for teaching a language, but were checked in their efforts because they had not to teach Latin, but had to teach Cæsar only.

Miss BAILEY wished to say a few words, because one speaker alluded to female education. She expressed her agreement with Dr. Rigg upon the principle of free trade in education. She also thought much of parental responsibility, and urged that parents should study its duties. She alluded to M. Liard's remark that the French did not wish to produce learned women by their plans of education; and said that the freedom of education for girls in England and America resulted in more freedom of action for good. If the ideas of a nation upon education were too cramped by considerations of sex, we should have no such work as that done by Miss Carpenter and Mrs. Nassau, senior, Miss Nightingale and Miss Robinson.

She had been much pleased with the neat writing and drawing apparent among the papers of girls, between twelve and twenty years of age, as shown in the French educational section of the Exhibition. She thought the writing in most English secondary schools poor. She had not met with any of the French pupils' papers in foreign languages; but she considered their exercises in arithmetic and geometry much easier than those required by the Senior Cambridge Local Examination. She thought something might be learnt from this. It was true that the cause of female education had had very up-hill work in England. It had been necessary for ladies to pass university examinations, and challenge the most difficult tests, to prove what women could do; and to open up for them a larger variety of employments. She felt that every woman ought to be grateful to those clever ladies, who had not shrunk from exceptionally trying and, no doubt, expensive proofs of their ability. But now that people were satisfied that women ought to have every facility possible for making them useful workers in various ways, might it not be

advisable to put the higher branches of mathematics and the study of classical languages less prominently forward in the education of girls in general, and give more place to the study of modern languages, and to the study of educational principles? She did not think that every woman could be made a professional teacher, but she did maintain that every woman ought to know more about those principles of infant training which might help her to bring up her children as good citizens.

Mrs. MORTIMER said that she was entirely in sympathy with Mr. Poole's paper; that the University Local Examinations had done a great work in raising the standard of education in private schools, and also that she had found it a good plan to devote only the last term before the examination to the special work. As regards the Literature, she found Shakspeare was a difficult work to be studied with young girls from twelve to eighteen years of age, and thought that it would be preferable to allow them to study the general literature of our country. For examination in history a special period was given, and they were able to devote the last term to that particular preparation; but those who had studied the questions upon history would see that no student could pass without a fair general knowledge of the subject, as a good part of the paper was given to English history in general. She thought it might be optional to take a course either of ancient history or modern general history. In private schools they would like to devote more time to subjects in general, whether literary, scientific, or historical, and especially to languages, in regard to which she deprecated the constant use of the set-books to the exclusion of other works more valuable to the pupils. Some little change of that kind might be made, and it would give them more scope in their school work.

Mr. BIRD said that, in discussing the development and improvement of higher education, they should bear in mind two points which, to his mind, seemed of much greater importance than all others. They had had an account of the elaborate system of higher education in France, and in

Germany, as everybody knew, it was certainly equally perfect. In Germany about fifty per thousand were receiving a higher education, whereas in England certainly not more than five were doing so. They ought to draw one-half or at least one-third of the children from the elementary schools into the higher schools, and that could only be done by making the higher education a great deal more accessible than it was at present. In England people had to pay more than cost price for any education above the elementary school, whereas In Germany *all* education was supplied under cost price. He had an opportunity last autumn of becoming tolerably well acquainted with the higher schools of Stuttgart, though he did not think that Stuttgart was more favourably situated than any other German town. At Stuttgart there were three higher schools devoted to general education. It was a town of about 120,000 inhabitants, being about the same size as Leicester. There were in the Gymnasium of Stuttgart 1300 boys receiving a classical education, there were 1100 in the Real school receiving a modern education, and 900 in the Real Gymnasium receiving a sort of intermediate education, doing Latin, but not Greek. He had quoted Leicester, because a friend of his was the head of the very successful Wigston School there, where they had 500 boys undergoing higher education, and even if the private schools had another 500, this would only give 1000 out of 120,000, which was far below the German standard. He thought that if they compared the statistics of Bedford they would find them fall equally short. The Endowed Schools Commission calculated that there ought to be provision for ten persons in a thousand in the higher schools, but that provision had never yet been made, and they never would reach anything like the German and French figures unless higher education were cheapened. Endowments seemed to be useless for that, and the most richly endowed schools seemed to charge higher fees than those which were not endowed at all. He could quote great numbers of cases of that kind. The cost price of education was a little under £7 per head at Stutt-

gart. The head masters were certainly paid less than in England, but he was not quite sure that the assistant-masters were. In the Real School at Stuttgart 1100 boys were educated for about £7 per head. The parents actually paid £2 11*s.* 6*d.*, the State paid one-third, and the town the other third. The cost of education was equally divided, with certain additions and deductions, between the States, the town, and the parent. When there were enough higher schools in England, and when they had been made cheap, another matter to be carefully considered was the classification and co-ordination of them. When two schools in a town had come into the hands of the Charity Commissioners and been re-organised, they were arranged as first grade and second grade schools. The first grade school was almost invariably a classical school, with rather high fees, running up to £24, and being never less than £12 or £16. The second grade school was generally a modern school where the teaching of science and modern languages was encouraged. Boys were not allowed to stay there beyond sixteen or seventeen, and then, by a very curious arrangement, the Charity Commissioners made the modern school give its boys exhibitions to leave the school, and go to the classical school,—not to continue their education, but to begin another kind of education altogether. A boy who had been studying practical chemistry, electricity, geology, and who had been paying particular attention to French and German, was transplanted out of that school, the school paying for it, and put into a classical school, where he was put down in a low form to begin Greek, and just to continue the little bit of Latin that he had probably learnt at the other school. He was treated as a dunce, and spoiled entirely. That was how far we had got in classification. The second grade school was looked upon as a preparatory school for the classical school, which was to his mind utterly illogical. He was the head master of a modern school, connected by means of exhibitions with a classical school in the manner described. He had lately sent a boy to the Real School at Stuttgart, and he com-

mended that method to other schools similarly situated, because by going to a German modern school a boy continued the education he was not allowed to continue in England. Buildings similar to the one in which they were assembled were being erected all over the country, or it was hoped they would be erected, and those technical institutions were to science what the universities were to ancient languages and mathematics. In Germany boys left the Real School and went to the Polytechnic School to continue their scientific education, as boys went from a Gymnasium to the University to continue their classical education. In England there would be a gap between the high technical institutions and modern schools. The technical institutions would have to take boys who ought to be at school, and do comparatively elementary work which ought really to have been done at school. He commended to them the address of the President of the Chemical Society this year in that connection, and felt sure the matter was one which would require very serious consideration as time went on.

The Rev. E. F. M. MacCarthy, Birmingham, said he had been for many years in charge of a middle school which Mr. Bird had described as a modern school, and he would like to say one word with reference to that question. He thought Mr. Bird was rather under a mistake as to the operations of the Charity Commissioners in connection with the schemes in large towns. In Birmingham they had some such scheme as that he (Mr. Bird) had sketched out, but its operation was not exactly as he had described it. It was true that now and then a boy in a middle school would develop linguistic and literary power at a comparatively early age, and one would be struck with the fact that perhaps, in his particular case, a university education would be justified, and therefore that he would be in the wrong school. Under those circumstances he was transplanted, and by means of exhibitions that transplantation was rendered comparatively easy. In all cases that passing on took place quite early in a boy's life. He agreed with

Mr. Bird that it would be the height of folly to keep a boy until he was seventeen years old, if they were then going to pitchfork him into a classical school. It was at the age of thirteen or fourteen that he should be transplanted. With regard to boys who remained till they were sixteen or seventeen, and wanted to carry education of a real character further on, he could not understand why Mr. Bird had been obliged to go to Stuttgart, because science colleges had lately been founded in most of our large towns, such as Sheffield and Birmingham, and these were the places to which young lads of from sixteen to seventeen would in future be sent. Exhibitions under the schemes of the Commissioners were open to them, and would give them a natural means of transition. Most teachers had their charges to bring against the Charity Commissioners, but in that particular case he thought they had acted with fair judgment whenever they had been controlled by the public opinion of the places where the endowments happened to be; and in Birmingham public opinion had been sufficiently strong to guide the errant fancies of outside Commissioners, and after one or two changes of scheme, they had arrived at something like a workable system of complete education for the community. With regard to Mr. Poole's paper, he cordially agreed with its contents. He could only wish that his complaints as to the weak points of the Oxford Local Examinations had been a little bit stronger. This year, the books chosen, especially the French and German books, were certainly most inappropriate; and with regard to other subjects he thought that the setters of the papers did not in the least understand what a middle school was. Hence the papers were only cramming papers. He supposed that an examiner on a recent occasion must have opened some text-book of Geography and put a question upon each chapter, or he would not have set the following question: "What are the different religions of the world, and how are they distributed?"

Dr. RIGG said that his statement about illiteracy in the United States had been taken from the highest American

authorities, namely, the preface of the Commissioners of Education to one of the Reports on Education, published annually, and likewise from the journal of Dr. Henry Barnard, in which the whole subject had been exhaustively analysed, and the conclusion arrived at, and which he had stated, had, he thought, been demonstrated.

The Rev. R. B. POOLE, replying to the different speakers, said that he thought many schools had such a syllabus as Mr. MacCracken wished to obtain ; at any rate they had one at Bedford. He had been informed that the College of Preceptors had lately taken to setting unseen papers, beginning with the lowest grades of their examination, and that was a great improvement in the right direction. They found the first examination was somewhat destructive to the passing of candidates, but the grammar and knowledge of language were very much improved. With regard to Greek required for the University of London that seemed to show the folly of endeavouring to teach a small quantity of anything. It was exactly the same with reference to the University of Cambridge. He had had several boys pass through his hands who had got scholarships in mathematics or science, and they had been sent to Cambridge, and he found it took about 240 hours to learn enough Greek to pass the necessary examinations. As Mr. Bird had mentioned Bedford in the course of his remarks, he would say that with a population of 20,000, they had a thousand boys at the Grammar and Modern schools, and the endowments were by no means useless, because the charge in the Modern school was only from £4 to £9, and in the Grammar school from £9 to £12. For the Modern school they had succeeded in getting the age extended to 18 or 18½, so they did not have to transfer boys to the Grammar school, but were able to send them, with their exhibitions to help to pay their expenses at the places in which they would complete their education. One of his exhibitioners was going to the opening of the Institute in which they were then assembled, and in the meantime he was going to the City and Guilds of London Institute.

The CHAIRMAN (Mr. Lyulph Stanley) said that anybody who had heard the interesting papers which had been read, and listened to the discussion, must have felt that there was in this country no organisation of intermediate and higher education, and many points which had been raised had been criticisms upon some makeshifts which were employed as substitutes for organisation. It was necessary that the work of a school should be tested by persons not responsible for upholding the credit of the school ; but he thought that when they made examination their principal machinery of elementary education, they were in great danger of falling into a great mistake. Mr. Roberts's paper had been deeply interesting, and it was a most satisfactory and gratifying thing to those who looked forward to the development of the organisation of higher education to see how the democratic men of the north laid hold of the value of education for its own sake, and sacrificed time and money and physical repose for the sake of grasping at the ideal of higher education for themselves. They must all hope that the University Extension Scheme might do much to disseminate the desire for higher education throughout the country. They could not look to schools worked by volunteers as the permanent organisation of higher education, but they must rather look upon them as pioneers or missionaries, and hope that their efforts would lead to the establishment of a large number of local colleges, such as those at Nottingham, Bristol and other places where night classes would be a very prominent feature. That seemed to him to be what they must look to for bringing higher education within the reach of the labouring and wage-earning classes. He was sure they must all have been in sympathy with Mr. Poole's paper, and the only question which occurred to him was, whether he had not raised rather too minute a point with reference to the work of an International Congress. They were in danger, in that place, of forgetting that it was an International Congress, and that they ought to direct their attention to important questions. The subject of secondary education had been touched upon in an in-

teresting way in the remarks of M. Liard, but he had not time to explain fully all that was being done in France; and ladies who were present must not infer from his concluding remarks that the French Government were not earnestly considering the question of the curriculum of girls. The schools of *Instruction Primaire Supérieure* corresponded to what in this country were called third grade schools, and were a vital and important part in the organisation of secondary education. The Endowed Schools Commissioners calculated that sixteen in a thousand of the population would require to have secondary education, and they calculated that eight in a thousand would require third grade instruction. In the history of English education it would be seen that they had worked from above downwards, and the public authorities had looked at the great public schools as intended for the education of the rich, and it was only comparatively of late years that the education of the poor had become a matter of interest. He hoped the point of view was going to be reversed, and that they were going to look at education from the bottom upwards, and that they were going to look at the affiliation of secondary to primary schools. What he thought they wanted was liberty of education in modern subjects, such as they had had in classical subjects. They did not want education to be less liberal, but they wanted it to be rather different in its subjects; and he felt quite sure if the great champions of education at the time of the *Renaissance* had been alive they would have been on the side of modern education. They discarded the scholasticism and routine of the Middle Ages in favour of new knowledge, and since then there had been gigantic revolutions of science, and that magnificent English literature, and that magnificent literature of foreign nations which had been built up from the action of the *Renaissance*, and the action of the Reformation, and of progressive thought in Europe. They now as essentially wanted for an intelligent and cultivated education a full knowledge of their own literature, and, as far as possible, of the literature of other nations, and a

knowledge of modern things, as at the *Renaissance* they wanted a scholarly knowledge of Latin and Greek. He thought that Latin had worked into the whole of civilization, and to a great extent would always be a very important element in education. As to Greek he should be very glad to see the day when it would absolutely disappear from the compulsory part of universal education. Latin at the time of the Reformation was the language of intercourse for educated men throughout Europe. Modern languages then had scarcely any literature ; but now modern languages—especially French and German—had the most valuable literature. He thought they must recognise that they must have both those languages in any complete system in modern education, and he hoped that in any organisation of intermediate education they would be included in the curriculum. They would not discard classics altogether, but would give the first prominence to those vastly interesting subjects which would not only widen their knowledge, but would give as much cultivation as ever the classic languages could have given.

[The section adjourned until 2 P.M.]

After the adjournment the chair was taken by the Rev. THOMAS D. C. MORSE, Member of the London School Board.

THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION MOVEMENT.

By ALBERT GREY, M.P.

THE University Extension movement owes its origin to an invitation which was sent a few years ago to Professor Stuart, of Trinity College, Cambridge, by an Association for the Higher Education of Women, with societies in Liver-

pool, Manchester, Sheffield, and Leeds, asking him to give a course of lectures on the art of teaching. While declining to lecture on the art of teaching, Professor Stuart engaged to give a course of lectures, attempting to teach some subject, and selected as his subject, astronomy.

In order that he might make the most effective use of his time, it was arranged that he should give the same course of lectures in all four towns, going from one town to the other each week for some couple of months.

These lectures were marked by two distinguishing features.

It occurred to Professor Stuart that it would be of great assistance to those of his students who were not conversant with the subject, as well as to those who, as intending governesses and schoolmistresses, were anxious to be instructed in the art of teaching, if they could be provided with carefully drawn up syllabuses of the lectures. Syllabuses of each lecture were accordingly handed to the students, who were thus enabled not only to follow the lecture, but to recall it to mind after they got home. The syllabus also served to give a lesson in the difficult art of making notes ; and when the course of lectures was done, and the syllabuses were all threaded together, they formed a little text-book on the subject, which Professor Stuart subsequently found out was made use of by many who had attended the lectures in teaching others.

It also occurred to Professor Stuart that it would be a good plan, in order to test how far the students had acquired an accurate knowledge of what he taught, if at the end of the lecture he handed round to the students a paper on which a number of questions were printed, with the request that they should write out their answers at home and send them to him by post. There were 600 people attending the lectures in the town where he first made this experiment, and on the Friday morning following the lecture, he received no less than 400 letters containing answers to his questions. Heavy as the work was which was entailed in the looking over so many papers, Professor Stuart hailed with immense

satisfaction the success of his experiment. He was convinced that this practice of setting questions was of great advantage. The writing out of the answers was not only of considerable educational value to those who wrote—they also proved an efficient and trustworthy guide to him as a teacher—for when he found that the same mistake was repeated in different papers, he knew that his explanation had not been sufficiently clear, and at the next lecture he took care to remove the wrong impression which had been conveyed to the students through possibly deficient explanation on his part.

The advantages of the circuit, the syllabus, and the questions, were thus amply demonstrated by the course given at the invitation of the Association for the Higher Education of Women.

Soon after he had concluded this course, he began a new course to the co-operators of Rochdale. These lectures were illustrated by diagrams, which he hung on the walls of the room, and which, owing to the difficulty of removal, were allowed to remain a day or two after the lecture had been given. The result of his leaving these diagrams was, that a few young men who had met together to study them, prepared a number of questions which they asked him when he came to the next lecture, requesting him at the same time that he would in future attend an hour before the lecture began, in order that they might have an opportunity of asking questions on the lecture that had been given the week before.

Professor Stuart at once granted this request, which struck him as a most fortunate and happy suggestion. This extra hour would enable the lecturer to go over at leisure those points which might have been shown by the papers to have been insufficiently understood; it would give time for questionings and for discussions between him and the class; it would give those students who were not conversant with the subject an opportunity of familiarising their minds with the new ideas, and thus enable them to keep up with the lectures; and further, it would give the

lecturer an opportunity of making the personal acquaintance of those of the students who might wish to avail themselves of his counsel and instruction. Just then as the first course showed the advantage of the circuit, the syllabus and the questions, this latter course demonstrated that to make the instruction more complete, it was important that a class should be added to the lecture. On the experience gained by Professor Stuart at these two courses the University Extension, as it now exists, was based and founded.

Wherever a course of University Extension Lectures is given, the method followed is the same. In order to ensure a complete and thorough handling of the subject, the University insists that each course shall consist of twelve lectures. These twelve lectures take place at regular weekly intervals, so that the students, if they be so disposed, may have time to make their own investigations into the subject dealt with by the lecturer.

Then in order to help the lecturer in the work of teaching, syllabuses of the lectures, which, bound together, make an admirable little text-book on the subject, are printed and offered at cost price to the students. These syllabuses are very complete. They give in the first place notes of the lecture; then following the notes are printed a few questions, with a request to send the answers by post to the lecturer, and at the bottom of the page is a list of the books to which the student is recommended to refer.

In the North of England we have always for an hour before the lecture begins a class on the lecture of the week before; the discussions which take place at these classes are always most instructive and sometimes very exciting.

One of the lecturers writing to Mr. Roberts after his first visit to the North, said: "The class last Tuesday was a complete surprise to me. I had expected to find some difficulty in filling up the hour, but there was a continued fire of questions and short argument the whole time. The whole audience seemed to enter into the spirit of the hour, and thoroughly to enjoy it."

These classes in the North are as well attended as the

lectures themselves; and so essential and important a part of this system of instruction do we consider the class to be, that we make a point of encouraging those who attend the lectures to attend the classes as well, by allowing the ticket for the lectures to admit to the classes also.

At the end of the course of lectures an examination of those who wish to be examined is conducted by some one carefully selected by the University of Cambridge; and those who, in the opinion of the examiner, have done sufficiently well are rewarded with a certificate issued by the University of Cambridge, which testifies to the proficiency of the student in the subject of examination.

There is also a Vice-Chancellor's certificate, which is given to those who have gained six ordinary certificates.

It is unfortunate that this Vice-Chancellor's certificate has as yet no University value.

"I have frequently been asked," writes Mr. Roberts, in his last report to the Syndicate, "especially by working men, what value the Vice-Chancellor's certificate possesses; and they have expressed disappointment on learning that the certificate has no University recognition and confers no University privilege. The recognition by the University in some way of this certificate, which represents definite organised work under University superintendence for an aggregate period of eighteen months, would complete the chain, and give stability and strength to the scheme."

I may be permitted to add, that nothing would, in my opinion, tend to make University Extension more popular, or give a greater impetus to the movement, than to bestow upon the holder of a Vice-Chancellor's certificate the privilege of a vote for the Parliamentary Representation of his University.

Another distinguishing characteristic of the scheme is the grouping of the localities at which the lectures are given.

In order to enable a locality to obtain the services of a good lecturer at something less than a prohibitive fee, it is generally arranged that, just as Professor Stuart gave the same course of lectures to Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, and

Liverpool, going from one town to another each week, so the University Extension lecturer should be able to give the course which he delivers at one centre at three other centres as well. By thus arranging that four distinct centres should co-operate to share the services of a lecturer for a period of twelve weeks, each centre is enabled to secure a course of lectures from a competent lecturer, at a fee greatly less than it would have to pay if the lecturer was required to give one course only.

Even with this arrangement the average cost of a University Extension course is very high ; the fee to the lecturer is £40, and the examination fee involves a charge of an additional £5. To these charges must be added the local expenses of printing, advertising, hiring rooms, &c., which vary from £5 to £25 more, bringing up the total expense of each course to some sum standing between £50 and £70.

I may further add that in Northumberland, where the University Extension System has been more successful than anywhere else, the average attendances at the Tyneside and Pit centres numbering nearly one-third of the entire number of Cambridge Extension students, it has been a fixed rule, carefully adhered to, by every centre except that of Hexham where 5*s.* was fixed upon as the fee, that in no case should more than 2*s.* 6*d.* be charged for admission to the whole course of lectures and classes. In the Pit districts the sum charged is only 1*s.* There is abundant evidence to show that 5*s.* is a prohibitive fee for the bulk of persons earning moderate wages, and that in order to supply this education at a price which the wage earner can afford to pay, it is absolutely essential that the fee should not exceed 2*s.* 6*d.*, and that if possible it should be reduced to as low as 1*s.*

Mr. Neil, the secretary of the mining centres, writes :— "The Committee are of opinion that the lectures must be cheap in order to be successful. Yet it is a fact too well known that the shilling paid for the lectures means less bread or clothing to some poor children. I am acquainted with a miner who purchased a ticket for the lectures, but

was not able for some weeks after the commencement of the course to purchase a copy of the syllabus. Another man, with whom I am acquainted, had several friends attending the course on Political Economy. When any of the friends were unable to attend he got the ticket, and managed in this way to attend a few of the lectures."

There is a touching fact recorded in one of Mr. Robert's reports, which testifies both to the eager desire of working men to avail themselves of higher education, and to the prohibitive character of a large fee.

" At York," he writes, " I was present at one of the lectures and was very much impressed with the earnestness and enthusiasm of the audience, which consisted unmistakeably of genuine artizans. On the front bench sat six men who appeared to be asleep, but I was told after the lecture that they were blind men from the Blind Institution. It appears that one of them had been presented with a ticket for the first lecture, and carried back to his comrades such a glowing account of the proceedings that a number desired to attend. They determined to club together to buy tickets, but found 1*s.* 6*d.* each beyond their means, and they were obliged reluctantly to give up the idea. This chanced to come to the ears of one of the Artizan Committee, who collected amongst his acquaintances enough to purchase six eighteen-penny tickets, which were presented to the six blind men, who attended the Course with unfailing regularity. The topics of each lecture, I was told, furnished subjects of conversation and discussion amongst them during the week. The results of this experiment are highly interesting and important, as proving that artizans will avail themselves of the Local Lectures Scheme, if the fees are low enough, and they have a due share in the management."

I have described the origin and the chief features of the University Extension System, the circuit, the lecture, the class, the syllabus, the examination, the certificate, and the Vice-Chancellor's certificate. I will briefly refer to the position which the University Extension Movement at present occupies.

There is a University Extension System which is under the control of a London society, and there is a University Extension System which is under the control of Cambridge University.

In presence of Mr. E. T. Cook, it is not for me to make any remark on the work done by the London society, of which he is the able and efficient secretary. He is here to speak for himself.

I will content myself with referring to the work which is being carried on by Cambridge. In the Michaelmas term of 1883, 4522 students attended regularly 39 courses of lectures, which were given at 30 centres; and during last Lent term 3356 students attended 27 courses, which were given at 21 centres. Of this number, 1429 in the Michaelmas term and 900 in the Lent term attended at the Northumberland centres. The average attendance at the Northumberland centres being 165, as against 107 at the centres outside Northumberland.

I will now proceed to show (1) that the character of the instruction supplied at these University Extension Lectures is good, and (2) that it is peculiarly well adapted to the requirements and wants of the working classes.

1. That the character of the instruction is good.

This is shown by the reports of the examiners, by the results of the examinations, and by the character of the students. It would be easy to quote any number of examiners' reports which testify to the educational value of University Extension teaching. I will content myself, however, with quoting one report, which I think will be sufficient to show that, although it is an especial aim of the movement to give instruction in a popular form, the instruction given is thorough and complete.

The course of University Extension Lectures that was given at Newcastle on electricity was attended by the professional staff of the Swan Electric Light Company, as well as by a mixed audience, averaging over 200, including working men and ladies, who had no previous knowledge of the subject.

The examiner in his report on the examination held at the close of the course, says :—" For a scientific course of lectures to university students the syllabus scarcely admits of improvement. In accuracy of expression and logical order of thought it is nearly perfect. Considered by itself the syllabus conveys an impression that the lectures were more adapted to candidates for the Natural Science Tripos in their second or third year than to an " Extension " audience. This illusion is completely dispelled by the character of the work sent up by the candidates. The paper of questions was long and difficult. The marks obtained sufficiently indicate the character of the work. In only a few cases did some curious misconceptions indicate that the candidate had not received all the advantages of an university education."

The educational value of the University Extension System has also been made evident to us in Northumberland by the fact that old students, who have been through one or more courses, do better in a fresh subject than new students who have not gone through the training and discipline of a previous course.

At Seaton Delaval, one of the mining centres in Northumberland, where courses of University Extension Lectures have been regularly held year after year for four years, the students show a greater capacity to grasp and master new teaching than the students of other mining centres who are similar to the students of Seaton Delaval in every respect, except that they have not enjoyed for so long the same advantages of receiving good and systematic higher education.

This fact is exceedingly satisfactory, inasmuch as it tends to show that this system of University Extension is not only calculated to convey a knowledge of facts to those who attend the lectures, but that it fulfils the highest function of the educator, inasmuch as it tends to develop the mental faculties, and increase the intellectual power of those who come beneath its influence. I may mention also as a proof of the high opinion that is entertained of the

value of the University Extension System in the North of England, that the Literary and Philosophical Institute of Newcastle have recently abandoned the old custom of having, during each winter, a large number of isolated lectures on special subjects by distinguished prominent men, and have substituted in their place continuous courses of University Extension Lectures, owing to the belief that systematic and continuous instruction on one subject is of far greater benefit than any number of single addresses however brilliant and inspired they may be.

I have said enough, I trust, to satisfy you as to the educational value of the instruction given at the University Extension Lectures.

If further proof were wanting that the instruction offered is worth receiving, it can be obtained at any time by a visit to one of our northern centres.

A glance over the ranks of students, who are drawn from both sexes and from every class, would at once satisfy the enquirer that University Extension Lectures fulfil the essential qualification laid down by Dr. Chalmers as the first requisite of any popular form of instruction, namely that the education should be such as the rich may well receive, and for which the poor can well afford to pay.

At York, where they have lately fixed the price of tickets for the whole course at 1*s.*, with the result of filling the lecture room, which, when a higher fee was charged, was comparatively empty, a lecturer writes :

"I think we have solved the difficulty of bringing together a mixed audience, as we had on perfect equality workmen earning about 18s. a week, and members of some of the leading families in York, as well as pupils of the schools."

2. That the University Extension Lectures are wanted.

The best course I can adopt for convincing you how well adapted the University Extension Scheme is to meet the wants and requirements of the people, and of how ready they are to avail themselves of facilities for receiving a good higher education, is to give you in as short a narrative

as I can a history of the University Extension movement in Northumberland.

The University Extension System was first introduced into Northumberland in the autumn of 1879. The subject chosen was Political Economy. The towns selected were Newcastle, North Shields, South Shields, and Sunderland.

The lectures took hold of the public from the first. The average weekly attendance at the four centres was nearly 800. The following quotations from the local press will certify to the success and the popularity of the course.

"The classes proved exceedingly attractive, and the discussions which took place between the lecturer and the students were of great educational value; they not only placed the lecturer *en rapport* with the views of his pupils, and made him acquainted with their difficulties, but also caused the members of the class to exercise their intellectual powers in thinking out the subject of discussion for themselves."

"The lectures delivered by Mr. Moorsom have been of great public service. His audience never tire. The interest is sustained all through, and in parting at the close of the session most of those who had been his audience parted from Mr. Moorsom as from a friend."

When the results of the examination were made known, it appeared that a working miner, by name John Pringle, who had walked some considerable distance, into the North Shields centre, every week, in order that he might attend the lectures, had obtained *the only first class* at the North Shields centre. This fact, coupled with the favourable impression which Mr. Moorsom had created, aroused a strong desire in the district for the extension of the lectures on Political Economy to other places.

Failing Mr. Moorsom, John Pringle was at once invited to deliver an address on some phase of Political Economy at Seaton Delaval, a small village in the heart of the mining district of Northumberland. He responded willingly to the appeal, and made use of his opportunity to urge the formation of a committee to make arrangements for carrying the

University Extension Scheme into the pit districts. Ably supported by John Bryson, Samuel Neil, and others, a movement which was in itself of great educational value, was set on foot by the miners themselves to secure the delivery of Mr. Moorsom's lectures during the coming autumn.

The result of their action was that they were able, aided by the generosity of the coalowners, and a few subscriptions from outside friends, and a grant of £15 to each centre from a central fund created at Newcastle, to make arrangements for holding, in the autumn of 1880, courses of lectures on Political Economy in five different centres.

These lectures had an extraordinary and astonishing success. The price for tickets was fixed at 1*s.* for the whole course of classes and lectures, so that no one should be prevented from attending from want of funds. The aggregate attendance at the five centres numbered over 1300 working miners, and though forty miners went in for examination, only two failed to pass.

Year after year since then the miners have, in spite of heavy financial difficulties, kept alive the University Extension Scheme in the pit districts of Northumberland. In 1881 and 1882 the number of Pit centres, owing to the want of funds, dwindled to three; but when last year, Mr. Roberts, the Secretary of the Cambridge Syndicate, offered the miners of Northumberland, that he would, in consequence of the splendid efforts they had made to secure for themselves the advantages of University instruction, enter into a special arrangement with them, and come himself and give them a course of lectures on Physical Geography, the competition for his lectures was so great, that ultimately it was found necessary, in order not to disappoint them, to arrange that lectures should be given at eight separate centres; and a course of Extension lectures on the Earth was accordingly given at five of the centres before Christmas, and a course on Chemistry at three other centres after Christmas. The average attendance throughout the lectures at these eight centres amounted to 990, 80 of whom entered for examination.

It is necessary to go among the miners of Northumberland, and to attend their meetings, in order to obtain an adequate idea of the passionate enthusiasm which is felt by the more intelligent of them for University Extension.

There are numerous instances of men who do not hesitate, even after a hard day's work, to travel long distances in the darkest night, and in the roughest weather, in order to attend the lectures.

One of the students, in a letter to the *Newcastle Chronicle* last October term, said, "I know several persons go a distance of six miles in order to hear the lectures ; nay I know some who have travelled ten miles in order to hear some of the present course of lectures. I know the Dudley Centre which I attend is generally crowded out, so that it is sometimes difficult to get a seat."

Then, in addition to the evidence of desire for higher education shown by the willingness to travel long and painful distances, there is the further evidence which is supplied by the readiness to incur large pecuniary sacrifices.

I quote the following facts from Mr. Roberts's last report :

"Last October, a young married pitman, who lives some distance from one of the Northumberland centres, arranged to leave work early on the lecture night, and lost in consequence £1 6*s*. in wages. He also attended the course during Easter term, and lost about the same sum—so that although he only paid 1*s*. for his ticket, the lectures will have cost him, what with postage to the lecturer, railway fare, and lost time—altogether 25*s*. to 30*s*. a term. Another miner who goes from Seaton Delaval weekly to the Literature course at Newcastle, found that, owing to loss of work, train fares, and fees, the cost to him was about £3."

Nor is the reason for this enthusiasm hard to find. It is difficult to over-estimate the importance to the student miner of the advent into his district of a University Lecturer, to whom he may apply for counsel and guidance in the direction of his studies.

"It would be impossible to calculate," writes a miner, "the money and time saved to the miner by learning from the lecturers what books are most useful to him in his studies."

Mr. Roberts has also stated that a young Northumbrian pitman had observed to him, "how one of the hardest and most pathetic things in the lot of a young working-man endeavouring to educate himself was the waste of time and money which ignorance of the best books on any subject and lack of guidance frequently occasioned;" and he was able to illustrate the truth of the pitman's complaint by an experience of his own.

A Cleveland miner, who had attended his lectures at Middlesborough in 1881, had told him how, a few years ago, he had, in his desire to know something of natural history, saved out of his scanty earnings a couple of pounds, which he laid out in the purchase of Goldsmith's "Animated Nature," only to discover later that Natural History was making rapid advances, and that the kind of book he wanted was one of an entirely different character.

No wonder, when Mr. Roberts meets with touching facts like these, that he writes, "one of the most important indirect benefits conferred by the University Extension Scheme is the help and guidance which lecturers residing in a district are able to give in this way."

In a large number of instances the views and modes of thought generated by attendance at the lectures, and the friendships which have grown up between the lecturer and the workman, have had a transforming and wonderful effect. To use an expression of Emerson's, "The men are not the men they were—they have all been to California and all have come back millionaires."

Mr. Roberts, in last year's report, mentions how a working joiner at a meeting in Hull, chiefly of working men, spoke most warmly of the benefits which he had derived from the lectures. He said, "It is six years since I first sat in this hall at the first course of University Extension Lectures, and I have attended all the courses since except one, when

I was ill. I cannot tell how much I owe to these lectures. They have worked a revolution in my life. I am able to take broader views of questions, and my interests are widened. My life is altogether brighter and happier; there is something about the University Lectures different from the Science and Art Classes—I can't correctly say what it is, but they do more for you and have more life in them."

In Northumberland the opinion amongst the miners is that they get more good from the University Extension Lectures than from the Science and Art Classes, even when the teaching is on the same subject. This opinion is general. W. Covell, a miner, of Backworth, Northumberland, who has taken three University Extension certificates, and several in connection with the Science and Art Department, says that he can cover more ground and receive more benefit by attending University Extension lectures for three months than he can by attending a Art and Science class on the same subject for six months. He says the Extension lecturers have a method of imparting knowledge found in no other class of teachers.

Another miner, who has specially distinguished himself in connection with the University Extension Scheme, writes:

"How from an infinite sleep he has just awakened; that hitherto he has been little better than a *machine*, but that since he has attended the University Extension Lectures the whole current of his life had been altered, and that he has begun to feel himself a *man*."

And then he adds, "It need no longer be asked why working men listen so eagerly to lectures on Political Economy, History, Chemistry, Geology, and Astronomy. Literature will come by and by. It is now clearly seen that the working man is at the bottom of the social ladder, because he is also at the bottom of the educational one. It is clearly seen that he cannot mix with higher classes because he is separated from them by an intellectual gap. It is clearly seen that history and literature are sealed books to him, because his intellectual faculties have lain dormant.

It is clearly seen that this education is the very thing that will open the gates to higher society, and will call the hitherto dormant faculties into play." He further mentions another very significant reason why the miners attach so high a value to higher education. "The leaders of the University Extension movement in this district," he writes, "have firmly grasped the following truth :—The constant flow of working men into the middle classes is not due so much to a desire to acquire wealth as to find suitable society. Those who are head and shoulders above their class can only remain in that class at the expense of the loss of all companionship. It is scarcely in the power of human nature to make such a sacrifice. Thus the working classes lose their best members, and the middle classes are crushed by competition. This flow causes the condition of the working classes to remain comparatively stationary. Those who would pull their class forward, and would contribute materially to the increase of the world's wealth, betake themselves to another sphere, and are heard of no more. This flow would not continue if the educational facilities were such as should enable the whole class to move forward simultaneously."

Although these lectures have been only an introduction of recent date into the mining districts of Northumberland, the number of sincere friendships which have been established between individual working men and the University lecturers have been sufficient to bind in links of steel the distant pits of Northumberland to the University of Cambridge.

The miners who five years ago would, if they had referred to the Universities at all, have referred to them only to denounce them, now speak with enthusiasm of "the grand old University of Cambridge, and I believe I may say, that the enthusiasm which is shown for university teaching in the pit districts of the north has aroused a corresponding enthusiasm for the miners in the university itself, for I have just received an announcement from Mr. Neil, the secretary of the mining centres, who with some other miners have been

the guests of university friends at Cambridge, that a scholarship of £10 a year has been founded, in order to enable one of the Northumberland miners to come and spend two months during the Long Vacation at the University itself, and that the first £10 has been provided by Miss Gladstone, who met the miners in the rooms of Professor Stuart.

Now having pointed out facts which testify to the passionate desire that exists among the Northumberland miners for this form of higher education, let me in a few words say what they are doing in order to obtain it.

The cost of these lectures is, as I have pointed out, very considerable; but this does not shake them in their determination to secure the permanent establishment of University Extension in their midst; nor does it lead them, in their endeavour to secure their object, to seek for any State or outside aid.

They are resolved to get the lectures for themselves, and they are resolved to pay for the lectures for themselves. They are aware that the funds at the disposal of the Northumberland Miners' Association, to which they subscribe, are very considerable, and many of them believe, among them the ablest and most earnest, that it would be impossible to use a portion of that fund in a way better calculated to advance the interests and well being of their order than by making grants in aid, on some well-considered principle, to the University Extension Scheme.

I have attended several conferences which have been summoned by the miners to consider what action they should take. It would be impossible for me to convey an adequate idea of the splendid spirit which animates the proceedings of their conferences, or of the high tone that runs through all their speeches. The policy of the miners, as unanimously declared at their conferences, may be expressed as follows :—

"If we had no funds we should be justified in going to the rich, but we have funds, and having funds, we have a responsibility, namely, that of teaching the working classes of England how to help themselves. At present we are

prevented by the rules of the Association from applying any part of our funds to educational purposes ; that rule must be altered, and then we must persuade the whole body of the miners to consent to the application of part of the funds to the endowment of the University Extension Lectures."

The first attempt on their part to get their rules changed has not been successful, but so far from being discouraged, they are now organizing a movement which during the coming autumn will make itself felt in every colliery village of Northumberland ; and no one who has the great advantage of an intimate acquaintance with any of the Northumberland pitmen can doubt for one moment that they will eventually succeed ; already although the University Extension System has only been in operation in the pit districts since 1880, those miners who have distinguished themselves most in the examinations on the University Extension Lectures are coming to the front as leaders both in political and Trade Union movements, and they may be relied upon to use their increased power to promote that system of higher education from which they have themselves benefited, and to the permanent establishment of which they attach high importance.

A strong appeal was sent out in the beginning of the year to the members of the Northumberland Miners' Association by Mr. S. Neil, the secretary of the mining centres.

TO THE MEMBERS OF THE NORTHUMBERLAND MINERS' ASSOCIATION.

GENTLEMEN,

The promoters of the University Extension Scheme beg your pecuniary assistance towards this system of higher education. You are now asked to say whether the education which has hitherto been the monopoly of the wealthy classes, shall be brought within reach of your own class. Will you aid in closing the intellectual gaps which separate the various classes of society and in repelling the charge of ignorance which is ever being hurled against the working classes ? You on whose shoulders the drudgery of the world falls ; you whose physical energies are taxed to the utmost ; you are asked to make possible the cultivation of those moral and intellectual faculties which you in common with all men possess. (It need not be said that those are the faculties which raise man above the brute creation, and that it

is only by their cultivation that he can enjoy life thoroughly. The works of our great poets, painters, and sculptors, are still the monopoly of those who are rich enough to purchase a high-class education.) The beauties of external nature are hidden from the working man. Will you aid in making the enjoyment of those pleasures by your class possible? Do you desire that the working man should attain intellectual manhood, and walk through the world without any sense of intellectual infirmity?

The University Extension Scheme was founded for the purpose of placing higher education within reach of the working classes. You now how fully the expectations of its founder and supporters have been realised; but no working man ought to rest content until every member of his class realises the importance of the scheme and the advantages to be derived from higher education.

Successful as the scheme has been among the Northumberland miners, the Committee beg to remind you that the necessary funds have been from time to time raised only by the greatest effort. The efforts are too severe to be continued much longer. You have funds at your disposal which cannot be put to a better purpose. The greatest battle in which your class has been engaged is yet to be fought—the battle against intellectual darkness.

By your collective effort you have established peace in the coal trade of the district, and you are now able to meet the employers on perfectly equal terms. Your wages are higher than they could possibly be without your organization, and you have the satisfaction of knowing that though wages are higher you have injured neither the employer nor the consumer. In return for higher wages you give peace, which does more than compensate the employers for the extra wage paid. Here is a striking instance of the power and usefulness of organization. It is only by collective effort that you can obtain the education which has hitherto been the monopoly of the rich. The attention and consideration which your grievances receive from the public and the legislature depends on the ability with which you can plead your case through the newspapers and on the public platforms. The amount of wages you receive depends on the ability of those who represent you in the arbitration court or on the sliding scale committee. Thus your very wage questions are really educational ones. If you do not want this higher education, surely you will aid in educating the men on whose brains your wages and your position in the estimation of the public and legislature depends.

The Committee is composed of working men—men mostly of your own association. Men who know how hard it is to acquire knowledge without the aid of good teachers. A four-years' acquaintance with the Scheme has enabled them to realise how thoroughly it meets the requirements of the working classes. They would most earnestly urge you to support it from your local funds. Surely you who owe so much to the struggles and sacrifices of your fathers will not refuse to aid in a

movement which will enable your children to stand on the same level as the children of the rich and educated classes.

On behalf of the Committee,
I am, &c.,
S. NEIL.

Seaton Delaval,
January 18th, 1884.

A miner wrote to me a month after the issuing of the appeal.

"The circular has reached the miners as they have never been reached before. Collieries that have hitherto ridiculed the scheme are now voting money and asking for lectures. Cowpen colliery was foremost in treating the Scheme with contempt and in refusing to render any assistance. In response to that appeal the colliery has voted a donation of £2. The men at Ashington have strongly supported the Science and Art Classes, and have been somewhat opposed to the Scheme; they have now voted a donation of £1 and are asking for a course of lectures. The funds of many collieries are so low that no grant can be voted, but the men at those collieries are declaring nearly unanimously that the Scheme should be supported by the union. The men at Cambois Colliery have actually sent a resolution to the Miners' Executive Committee to the effect that money should be taken from the general fund at once."

I have not the slightest doubt that this movement, which reflects the greatest credit upon the miners of the north, will very shortly be successful, and that they will find some means by which they will be able through their collective action to secure for themselves the great benefit of good high education.

I have now shown by reference to the working of University Extension in that part of the country with which I am intimately acquainted:—

1st. That the educational, social, and moral results which have followed from the adoption of the Scheme are of the greatest possible value.

2nd. That the artizan and miner classes are eager to

avail themselves of any facilities for receiving higher education which may be brought within their reach.

I would now venture to contend that it is our pressing and urgent duty to see that those facilities are forthcoming. If a demand for higher education exists, and we are not ready to meet that demand with something good, we may be sure it will be supplied with something bad.

In Northumberland and elsewhere the only obstacle to the widespread adoption of the University Extension Lectures is want of funds.

There are but few localities that are able to pay, term after term, sums varying from £50 to £70, for the luxury of a University Extension Course.

It is impossible to maintain these lectures on the fees. If the fee charged is 5*s.* for the whole course, it is necessary to obtain 200 students to pay the way, even supposing the cost of the lectures does not exceed the minumum of £50 ; but 5*s.* is in many cases a prohibitive fee, and prevents those very persons who are beginning to search after higher education from coming in.

So far from limiting these lectures to those places where we can obtain 200 students paying 5*s.* each, we ought to secure that these lectures should be available in every village where there are 100 persons ready to pay 1*s.* each.

Before this is possible, it will be absolutely necessary to provide some endowment for the University Extension Lectures.

There is no system of higher education in this country which is self-supporting.

May we not claim for the poor man, who is ready to endure great sacrifices in order to obtain good higher education, the same advantages which the rich man enjoys.

So far from there being any objection to our giving some assistance to poor men who are struggling to develop their mental faculties and to increase their intellectual manhood, it would be, on the contrary, a downright abandonment of duty if we neglected to provide assistance when we had the chance. The first thing to decide is how assistance can be

given. Time presses, and I can only suggest the method which should be employed.

Let a 5*s.* grant per head on the average attendance at the lectures be given in all cases where the fees for the whole course of lectures and classes do not exceed 2*s.* 6*d.*, provided always that the amount of grant in respect of any one course be limited to £25.

Such a grant as this would give a great stimulus to the University Extension movement. New centres would spring up in every quarter, until the demand for lecturers would threaten to exceed the supply, and render absolutely imperative that the University should bestow greater attention than it does at present to the production of men competent to undertake the office of lecturer. Nor would this method of aid destroy or diminish the necessity for such splendid action as that which I have described as being taken by the miners of Northumberland. I should consider any step calculated to put a stop to that movement as nothing short of a public calamity; if there were the slightest risk of this, I would be the last to recommend it.

Aid such as I have described, so far from curbing, would stimulate and call out local activities. In order to enable the miners to extend the benefits of University Extension to every centre where one hundred persons might be ready to avail themselves of the higher education at 1*s.* a head, it would still remain necessary, even if the cost of the lectures did not exceed the minimum of £50, to get at least* £20 in outside subscriptions, a sum large enough to make it absolutely certain that they will not ask for a course unless the desire for it is great. If they are ready by their collective effort to raise at present £40 or £45 for one course, they will not be less ready to raise it when by so doing they can secure two courses instead of one.

* A grant of 5*s.* per head on 100 attendances £25
100 shilling fees 5
£30
leaving a balance of £20 to make up the required sum of £50.

Then the question rises up—from what fund do you propose to make this grant?

There are four sources—

1. Subscriptions.
2. The rate.
3. The Consolidated Fund.
4. The University Funds.

The length of my paper is already so great that I am only able to refer to these four sources. Subscriptions are a most unsatisfactory source of revenue, and cannot be relied upon as a permanent means of support unless they assume the shape of a levy voluntarily imposed by men on themselves, such as would be the case if the Northumberland Miners' Association resolved to apply a part of their funds to the support of the lectures, in which case the subscription might be fairly termed a rate.

The rates offer an accessible and admirable means for the purpose of promoting schemes for the higher education of the people, and the example of Nottingham supplies a most convincing illustration as to the advantage which flows from such a course.

Then we have the Consolidated Fund, and the funds of the Universities and Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge.

The principle of endowing higher education out of the Consolidated Fund is abundantly recognised. We make large annual grants to Scotch, Irish, and Welsh Universities and Colleges.

There are, however, enormous sections of the people, including the very pick of the industrial classes, who are not reached by the Universities and Colleges. Why should they not be assisted in their efforts to obtain that higher education which the University Extension offers them in just the form that is suited to them? Why should not the aid which Parliament gives to the comparatively rich and limited class, who can afford to go to a College or a University, be afforded also to the people at large?

It is also an open question whether money given in aid of higher education would not do more good if it were given in

the form of a grant to University Extension than in grants to stationary Colleges and Universities. The money given to stationary Colleges pays for the education of men who in the great majority of instances are able to help themselves; while a money grant to University Extension would be of direct benefit to those who are least able to pay. £30,000 given to Scotland enables the Scotch Universities to give education to nearly 6000 undergraduates. £30,000 given in such a way as I have suggested would secure the average attendance every year at one course of Extension Lectures of at least 120,000 people; and as in many centres the average attendance would be not only 100, but considerably over 200, a grant of £30,000 to the University Extension Scheme would mean that not only 120,000, but probably over 150,000 persons were receiving higher education.

I do not quote these figures from any wish to attack the grants to the Scotch Universities, that is very far from my desire, but only to point out that if a grant of £30,000 to Scotch Universities is justified by its results, a grant of £30,000 to University Extension would be still more justified.

Then there are the night schools which are aided by Parliamentary grants. There is no doubt that the task of reorganising these schools must shortly be taken in hand. Night schools have played their part. The number of night scholars has steadily diminished from 73,000 in 1870, to 49,000 in 1876, to 33,000 in 1882, and to 28,000 in 1884. Night schools have been assisted by Parliamentary grants because it was thought right that those who were at work all day should have an opportunity of learning the three R's by night; but thanks to the working of the elementary day schools since the passing of the Act of 1870, night schools are no longer wanted for this purpose. Those who have passed through the elementary schools find that they are only taught in the night schools that which they have already learned. It thus happens that although night schools are supported by Parliamentary grants, they are

scarcely ever heard of in the mining districts of Northumberland. *The Times* declared only last week, "that a thoroughly liberal reconstruction of the scheme applied to night schools is one of the necessities of the times." What is wanted is that those who are engaged during the day in earning their livelihood, should have some opportunity of receiving good higher education at night.

Why should not the night schools of the future offer to the wage earners at a price they can afford to pay, not elementary lessons, but University instruction?

Why should not a working man who wishes to improve himself by receiving higher education, obtain the same assistance from the State as the working man who attends night-schools for the purpose of learning to read and write?

I touch lightly on the last possible source of revenue, viz., that supplied by the Universities and Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge.

If you divide the income of the Universities and Colleges by the number of the undergraduates, you will find it is under the mark to say that each undergraduate costs on an average £100 a year of public money to educate.

Now I cannot pause to discuss the reflections suggested by this mere statement of fact. I would, however, put it in the strongest possible manner, that it is monstrous that 5000 undergraduates, one half of whom can well afford to pay all possible charges for their education, should be educated at a cost of half a million of public money.

Lord Salisbury last year in the House of Lords pointed out how "It is the inevitable law of affairs that whenever you establish educational facilities for the poorest classes, gradually richer classes take possession of them. This is not the first time in our history that efforts have been made to educate the people; efforts were made centuries ago to do this by means of endowments. We have had *public schools, universities, and grammar schools, all of them representing the efforts of benevolent persons to educate the poorer classes; but in each case the richer classes stepped in and appropriated what was meant for the poor.*"

Ladies and gentlemen, when we are confronted with this statement of Lord Salisbury's, that it has been the inevitable law of affairs that in the case of educational endowments the richer classes have always stepped in and appropriated what was meant for the poor; when we are confronted with the fact, that the Universities and Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge with an income of over half a million of public money are educating only 5000 undergraduates; when we are able to show that a system of University Education has now been in successful operation for a period of years, which is peculiarly well adapted to the wants and requirements of the industrial classes, and that the only obstacle in the way of the extension of this system is want of funds; it may possibly be held that the proper funds out of which to provide a grant in aid of University Extension will be those of the Universities and Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge.

I must apologise for the length of my paper. I will end with an expression of hope that something of a public character may soon be done to promote the University Extension Movement. It would be most desirable to have a Commission to inquire into the whole subject of Higher Education; and it would also be most desirable to appoint a Fresh Universities Commission, which should inquire as to whether it may not be possible to re-apply the University funds in such a way as to make the Universities assume rather more than they do at present the character and functions of true National Institutions.

Dr. RIGG said he had listened to Mr. Grey's paper with the keenest possible interest, and he wished to ask whether there was any distinction, or whether there was any absolute agreement, so far as regarded the different classes of miners? His own observations had led him to the conclusion, which might be a mistake, that the lead miners were amongst the most intelligent and most thrifty and most advanced of all the mining classes of England. He

wished to ask whether the lead miners had any share of the advantages to which Mr. Grey had spoken?

Mr. GREY said that the lead miners had not moved yet, but if they made any efforts to obtain higher education, the same advantages would be given to them as had been given to other miners.

THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION MOVEMENT.

By E. T. COOK.

OF the many changes that have taken place in English institutions since an international exhibition was first held at Kensington, I doubt if any are greater than those which have come over our Universities. Up to thirty years ago, just as in Gibbon's time, if any one wanted a type of stability, he was sure to turn to the old Universities of England. But, as Professor Huxley has happily remarked, "If Gibbon could revisit the ancient seat of learning of which he has written so cavalierly, assuredly he would no longer speak of 'the monks of Oxford, sunk in prejudice and port.' There as elsewhere port has gone out of fashion and so has prejudice—at least that particularly fine old crusted sort of prejudice to which the great historian alludes." And what is true in this respect of Oxford goes without saying in the case of Cambridge; for in the inter-University reform race Cambridge is always some lengths ahead. Oxford apparently has never got over the old-fashioned repugnance to leaps in the dark, and thinks that any new departure is more properly taken first at Cambridge —on the principle, I suppose, of *fiat experimentum in corpore vili.* In the great liberating movement, however, which has changed the Universities from close corporations into national institutions, Oxford and Cambridge have moved with equal steps. Both Universities are now free to comers

of all creeds, and it is a remarkable sign of the times that at the College at Oxford to which I have the honour to belong, one of the most distinguished of the fellows is a Dissenting Minister in active service. A good deal has been done too, though not so much as many of us would like to see, towards making Oxford and Cambridge free to all comers, whatever their means. The system of unattached students brings many of the advantages of the Universities within the reach of very moderate means; whilst at both Universities there are colleges where the ideal of plain living and high thinking is carried out in practice, and where a poor man may thus enjoy the social privileges which were formerly reserved for the rich. But the University Extension Movement has not stopped here. The Universities have not only thrown their doors open to all who come to them, who after all must in any case form a very small body; but they have recognised the further duty of going to those who cannot come to them. It is to this branch of the great movement for making the Universities really national institutions that the term "University Extension" has been appropriated, and I should not have indulged in this general introduction but that it seemed to me important to indicate the relation of the so-called University Extension Movement to the larger movement of which it has usurped the proper name.

The phrase University Extension, as applied to the work with which I am to deal in this paper, is indeed somewhat misleading, and our critics have not failed to add that it is presumptuous. All that an Englishman means by a University can hardly be understood except by those who happen to have been at Oxford or Cambridge themselves. One side of it is given by Mr. Matthew Arnold in his well-known description of "the ineffable charm of Oxford, steeped in sentiment as she lies, spreading her gardens to the moonlight, and whispering from her towers the last enchantments of the middle age." The *genius loci*, and no less the intercourse with many minds and many characters, the floating atmosphere of intellectual interest: all

this cannot be reproduced in a hundred different local centres or extended along an indefinite line. Nor has the University Extension Movement, in spite of its presumptuous name, ever made any such pretence. Its real aim is accurately expressed by the society to my connexion with which I owe the honour of addressing you to-day, and which for conscience sake has burdened itself with the sesquipedalian name of the "London Society for the Extension of University Teaching." University teaching: here, at least, we have something which may be indefinitely extended, and which need lose nothing by distance from the centre. And here, too, I cannot omit to remark we have an aspect of the matter which seems especially appropriate to an International Conference. For an English University invested with its full attributes is, I suppose, about as different from a French or a German University as any two things called by the same name could well be; and I fancy that if one of us with Oxford in his mind were to confer about University Extension with another who was thinking of Göttingen, we should carry away no surer conclusions than did the ritualistic lady mentioned by Macaulay who learnt from Grote's Greece that Alcibiades won the heart of his fellow citizens by the splendour of his liturgies. But however much Universities may differ, University teaching, as I understand it, is everywhere the same; and it is by running briefly over what is meant by University teaching that I can best describe what the so-called University Extension Movement is. A word or two, however, must first be said about the machinery. There are two organisations for working the movement, one at Cambridge, the other in London. The former is a branch of the Local Examinations Syndicate; the latter is a society governed by a council, of which Mr. Goschen is chairman, and which co-operates with a Board composed of three representatives of each of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London, these representatives being appointed by the governing bodies of the several Universities. The scheme worked by these two organisations is in all essential

particulars the same; and by applying to the London Society in the case of London, and to the Cambridge Syndicate in the case of other places, any town or district may, for a sum of from £30 to £50, obtain a course of University teaching. The local organisation is left entirely in the hands of the local committees; all that the central organisations do is to provide the teaching. Here, then, we come back to the question, what a course of this University teaching is?

(1) I remember a story being told at Oxford of the late Professor Henry Smith—a name one can mention at any International Conference without fear of its not being known and respected—how he was explaining some mathematical discovery to his pupils, and after exhausting its other attractions added, "but the great beauty of it is, gentlemen, that it can never be of the slightest practical use to anybody." In this humorous form Professor Smith embodied what is the first great characteristic of University teaching—that it is neither "practical" nor technical, but pursues knowledge for its own sake. The first thing that the University Extension Movement has set itself to teach is that knowledge is needed not only as a means of livelihood, but also as a means of life; and this is a lesson which I venture to think can hardly be extended too widely. (2.) But if people are to be convinced of its truth, it must be presented by those able to do it justice. Wisdom must be justified of her children; and the second feature of all University teaching is that it should be in the hands of men who have at once a mastery and a love of their subjects. The University Extension Movement, therefore, has endeavoured that its agents should be men not inferior in qualification to those employed in teaching at the Universities themselves. (3) And it has insisted, in the third place, that the teaching given under its auspices shall be at least thorough as far as it goes. Thus, to begin with, it is a rule that no subject shall be treated in less than ten or twelve lectures; and this of itself is no slight advance on what are called "popular" lectures, for I assure

you that when I explain to our suburban friends that we propose to give a course of twelve weekly lectures, it is imagined more often than not that the twelve lectures will be on twelve different subjects. But it is not to the lectures in themselves that we attach most importance. Each lecture given in connection with the University Extension Movement is followed by class instruction, and further the lecturer gives out each week a set of questions which may be answered in writing at home and submitted to him for correction and comment at a subsequent class. The class and paper work combined thus afford an opportunity of clearing up the doubts and difficulties of individual students, and of establishing a closer relation between the lecturer and his audience than is possible in the case of the ordinary lecture. A further aid to thoroughness in teaching is a full syllabus of each lecture; this is a point upon which great stress is laid, both as a guarantee that the lectures shall be well thought out beforehand, and still more as an assistance to the student in following the lecture, in reading up for it beforehand, and in picking up the thread of it afterwards. And then, last of all, there is an examination at the end of the course, which is conducted by independent examiners, and on the results of which the University authorities award certificates to the successful candidates.

It will be seen from this sketch of the method of the University Extension Movement that it serves two purposes. For those persons who have only time or inclination to attend lectures, it provides that the lectures shall be given by first-rate men, and in distinct courses. At the same time it affords opportunities, to all who are desirous of studying a subject more fully, of as regular and systematic a course of instruction, of as near an approach to University teaching, as the circumstances of persons busily engaged during the day render possible. The substantial part of the work is that which is done for the latter kind of students; but the lecturers frequently speak of the "great interest" and "steady attention" shown by those who attended the

lectures only. "I have reason to believe," writes a lecturer, who has had several years' experience of the work, "both from letters received from members of the audience who did not do papers and from what I heard from other sources, that my audience spared no pains to read what I suggested to them and to supplement by private study what they heard in the lectures." And even where the lectures, taken by themselves, may not have had this directly educational result, the utility of the work in districts where few other means of rational recreation are at hand is, I venture to think, by no means inconsiderable. Moreover the line between the two classes of students above referred to is not a hard and fast one, for it is one of the privileges of an able lecturer to bridge over the gulf between the casual auditor and the genuine student. Genuine students are not content, as may be imagined, with a single course of twelve lectures on a given subject, and as the movement has grown there has been an increasing number of cases in which a systematic course of teaching has been continued for several years. To give one instance from a place which perhaps would be least expected to furnish it: at Whitechapel Mr. Walter Pye, after delivering seven courses of consecutive lectures on Physiology in connection with the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching, has, during the last session, supplemented them by a course of twenty lectures on biology and comparative anatomy; whilst Professor S. R. Gardiner has been lecturing now for six years on successive periods of English and European history. Nor is this an exceptional case; on the contrary the movement has been less markedly successful in London than in the provinces where it has, in many cases, led to the establishment of a permanent educational institution. The University College at Nottingham is an instance, the original endowment of £10,000 having been given on the condition that the Town Council would "erect buildings for the accommodation of the University Extension lectures, and to the satisfaction of the University of Cambridge." Similar results have followed in

Liverpool, Sheffield, and other places. Some attempt has been made, too, to give the movement a social side. Thus in many places associations have been formed among the students for the purpose of carrying on their studies during the summer months, and of promoting social intercourse. Attempts have been made, too, though necessarily on a small scale, to enable the University Extension students to understand something of the almost personal fascination which Oxford and Cambridge never fail to exercise over their alumni. From time to time a party of University Extension students from London visits one or other of the Universities, on the invitation of some college, and I shall not soon forget how, at a conference of delegates from various University Extension centres, which was held last year in the combination room of Peterhouse, the speakers talked of Cambridge as "our University."

The delegates who assembled on this occasion were fairly typical, by the way, of the different kinds of persons who attend the University Extension lectures. The lectures are primarily intended for young men and women between the period of leaving school and that of settling down in life; but experience has shown that these form only a nucleus with which both older and younger students can be associated. As for the social position of the students, this naturally varies with the different places where lectures are given and the different fees that are charged, and at one centre or another there is hardly any class which has not come within the scope of University Extension. At the lectures which are held in the afternoons, and for which a comparatively high fee is charged, the audiences consist almost entirely of women belonging to the well-to-do classes; but at evening lectures, if a low enough fee is charged, there are men and women of all classes found amongst the audience. At many centres a large proportion of the students is made up of teachers in public or private schools, and there is no class of students to whom University teaching can more properly be extended. No branch of the work is more remarkable, on the other hand,

than that which is done in the mining districts of the North of England. It has been debated whether the miners of Durham and Northumberland are "capable citizens." That is a question for the House of Lords and the House of Commons to settle between them; but if the miners are not capable citizens, the records of the University Extension Movement show how anxious many of them are to make themselves such. "I know several persons," writes a student,* "who go a distance of six miles in order to hear the lectures; nay, I know some who have travelled ten miles in order to hear some of the present course. I know the Dudley centre which I attend is generally crowded out, so much so that it is sometimes difficult to get a seat." Here is another instance of a yet more striking kind:— "Two pitmen, brothers, who lived at a village five miles from one of the lecture centres, attended the course. They were able to get in by train, but the return service was inconvenient, and they were compelled to walk home. They did this for three months, on dark nights, over wretchedly bad roads, and in all sorts of weather. On one occasion they returned in a severe storm, when the roads were so flooded that they lost their way and got up to their waists in water. In the examination at the close of the course they took the first places in the list, and they have since been the means of making their own village a lecture centre."* It may possibly be objected by the cynic that, touching as this enthusiasm for knowledge is, it is a little misdirected, and that University teaching must be sadly above the heads of Northumberland pitmen. But it is astonishing to what some men have attained with scarcely any early educational advantages. "I have been informed," writes Mr. Roberts, the Assistant Secretary to the Cambridge Syndicate, "that Mr. Joseph Skipsey, a pitman, formerly of Backworth, has acquired a masterly knowledge of some branches of English literature, and that he did this in face of the fact that he had no early education, and

* Quoted in a report (dated February 25th, 1884) to the Cambridge Syndicate by Mr. R. D. Roberts, Assistant Secretary.

began to work underground when a mere child. I can add the names of Mr. John Simm, West Cramlington, and Mr. Joseph Taylor, Shiremoor, both pitmen, who are able local geologists. They are also, although middle-aged men, students at the local lectures. I visited Mr. Simm last term, and spent a very pleasant afternoon at his house. He has a valuable collection of fish remains from the coal measures, collected by himself; and he has prepared with much labour a large and beautiful series of thin sections for the microscope. His knowledge of the local geology and palæontology is extraordinary, considering the difficulties he has had to overcome. With better educational facilities the difficulties of such men would be greatly lightened."

This, it seems to me, is a work worth doing, and one upon which the Universities might well look with as much favour as upon that of "keeping boarding schools in which the elements of the learned languages are taught to well-to-do youths." If it is a work worth doing, it is also worth developing; and I wish now to make a few practical suggestions under this head. To make the University Extension Movement a success, three things only are wanted, but they are, as the phrase goes, rather large orders. We want, in the first place, a plentiful supply of well-trained teachers; secondly, we want money; and, thirdly, we want a diffused and sustained local interest in our work. Let me say a few words on each of these needs before I pass on to suggest where we should look for help. We want, in the first place, trained teachers. I have said that University Extension lectures should be not inferior in qualifications to those engaged in teaching at the Universities themselves, but in truth they must be a good deal more than that. For, remember that our lecturers have none of the adventitious advantages of a University lecturer. The two most potent agencies in filling a lecture-room at Oxford or Cambridge are compulsion and an enlightened self-interest. Every one remembers lecturers whose audiences would have dwindled to nothing but for the compulsory clause; not because the teachers

were not learned enough, but because they had no gift of popular exposition. So, on the other hand, every one remembers lectures which were crowded, not because of the lecturers' gift of popular exposition, but because it was known that they would subsequently examine in the "schools." Success in a competitive examination is much the same thing as success in other forms of competition ; it depends on getting early information—early information of who is to examine you, and what his views are ; and I well remember the disgust with which some of us, after studying Political Economy under Professor Thorold Rogers, found that it would fall to our lot to be examined by Professor Bonamy Price. But there is neither coercion nor competition on the side of our lecturers. They must be able to catch the ear of a popular audience, on the one hand, and have the knack of interesting and stimulating individual students on the other. Neither of these things is particularly easy, and for the combination of them both careful training is indispensable. But there we are at once confronted by our second difficulty—that of finance. All over the country the University Extension movement finds the greatest difficulty as it is to make both ends meet ; what chance is there of finding the additional money which the training of teachers would require? The financial difficulty, I am sorry to say, taxes our resources and hampers our energies dreadfully. Here in London we are over and over again having to suspend operations for want of money, and in the mining districts of the north nothing but the necessity of paying for them stops the multiplication of the lectures. The public, it seems, will not subscribe to a work which has nothing to do with any religious denomination, and supplies no material need. We are often told that if our work was good for anything it would be self-supporting, and that if more funds are required they should be obtained from the students themselves. To prove the futility of this last suggestion would require an amount of detail for which you would hardly thank me, and I must content myself therefore, with the

assertion—based, however, on careful calculation—that to charge such fees as would make the scheme self-supporting would be, in London at least, to drive away two-thirds of the students. This conclusion, I may add, is entirely in accordance with experience elsewhere ; and I cannot recall any instance in which "Higher Education" is self-supporting. The experience of the Colleges which have happily been the outcome of University Extension lectures in the northern towns, illustrates the necessity for some endowment ; the permanent expenses at these Colleges are met either by endowments (as at Liverpool), or by municipal grants (as at Nottingham), and the students' fees form only an inconsiderable supplement. In this respect, too, the movement closely follows the case of the Universities themselves, for there would be little University teaching at Oxford and Cambridge if it depended on the students' fees alone and were not subsidized out of rich endowments. Exemption from the pinch of poverty is not, however, the only blessing that Oxford and Cambridge owe to their endowments ; it releases them also from the law of supply and demand. The whole machinery of University Teaching goes on at headquarters whether any one asks for the commodity or not ; but the extension of University teaching is only supplied at local centres where there is a demand, and that an effective demand, for it. That is not an evil in itself, far from it ; but it imposes on us the duty of creating the demand. University teaching is not one of the things which, as the shopkeepers say, is much asked for. Unfortunately, what men need most they generally want least ; and the creation of intellectual wants amongst the intellectually self-satisfied is as much of a duty as is the raising of the standard of living amongst those who are poorest in material things. Hence we want not only trained teachers and a well-stocked treasury to satisfy the demand for our goods, but an army of missionaries to stir it up.

And now, in conclusion, to what quarter should we look for help? I do not hesitate to say that, first of all, we have

a right to expect help from the Universities themselves. Clearly it is they who should supply our first want, and train our teachers. The Cambridge Syndicate might easily add University Extension to the other kinds of teaching in which they already afford training; and Cambridge is so much in the centre of the railway system that "object lessons" would always be within reach. But even more might be done privately and individually by College tutors. A tutor with any personal knowledge of the movement would see at once which of his pupils possessed aptitude for the work; and in such cases might he not impress upon them its usefulness and its dignity? I am speaking here of Oxford more than of Cambridge, where much is already done in this direction. In the overcrowded state of so many of the professions, our work need not be altogether ignored even from the point of view of earning a living. And this brings me to our second difficulty—the financial one—where again I think the Universities ought to help us. I remember that this point was urged strongly at the Cambridge Conference to which I have already alluded; and it was answered on behalf of the authorities that the University was very poor. But if the Universities are poor, the Colleges are rich; and why should not some of their many fellowships be utilised for University Extension? This seems to me so simple, so feasible, and so reasonable a suggestion, that I would venture to urge it very strongly upon the favourable consideration of the Conference in hope that it may thereby gain a force which I cannot myself give it. As for our third great want—local missionary effort—here it is not so much to the Universities or the Colleges as to individual members of them that we must look for assistance; and the University Settlements in particular, about which we have been hearing so much lately, should find their most obvious and perhaps their most useful mission in forwarding the University Extension Movement.

Not of course that assistance in this matter either is or need be confined to University men. Indeed as a matter

of fact of our twenty honorary local secretaries in different parts of London only five or six, I think, are members of a University. We welcome assistance from whatever source it comes; and shall be grateful indeed if this Conference by giving publicity to our work should increase the number of our allies. In particular we welcome co-operation with existing institutions of a kindred character, because such co-operation is most favourable to the permanence of our work. The London Society for the Extension of University Teaching has lately received with peculiar satisfaction a request for co-operation from the Watford Free Public Library. Why should not every public library make similar arrangements? And, just as we should like to give lectures on literature or history at every public library, so we should like to teach science in connection with every local museum; and I will venture to add, political philosophy in connection with every local parliament.

Such is the help we want from the Universities and from private enterprise; but no cause looks to get on much in these days without the assistance of the State, and there are two things which in the interest of the State itself as much as in that of our work I should like to obtain from that quarter. The first is the recognition of the certificates which the Universities give in connection with our work. Many of our students, as I have said, are teachers, and we should have more of them still if it were not that our certificates carry no tangible value. A science teacher is only entitled to obtain payment by results if he holds a certificate from the Science and Art Department; and what I ask is, that the Department should recognise a University Extension certificate as one of the qualifications equivalent to a certificate issued by itself. In order to make out a case for such a concession, I must show two things—first, that the standard of scientific knowledge implied by the University certificate is as high as the standard implied by the now recognised qualifications; and secondly, that there are good grounds in the interest of national education for making the change. Now, the first point is merely

a matter of detail, which could very easily be settled between the Department and the University authorities, and need not detain us. But what I wish to lay stress upon is that University Extension certificates have advantages over those of the Department such as to make the recognition of the former desirable in the interests of education. Now, a certificate from the Department merely implies that its holder has been able to pass a certain examination ; it does not attempt to get behind the examination and ask how the requisite knowledge was obtained or what qualifications (apart from knowledge) the candidate has for teaching. As a matter of fact the knowledge is often obtained by mere cramming, and the student's only qualification is that having been crammed himself he is likely to be able to cram others. That this is the case seems proved not only by the inherent necessities of a system which regards examination as the "end-all" and "be-all," but also by the frequent precautions against cramming which the Department inserts in its directory. The University Extension certificates, on the other hand, imply not only that the holders have passed a certain examination, but also that they have gone through a course of teaching under the supervision of the Universities ; for no one is allowed to enter for examination without having (1) attended a course of lectures given by men not inferior in qualification to those engaged in teaching at the Universities themselves, and (2) having regularly attended the subsequent "classes," and thus having come into personal contact with the teacher, and (3) in most cases having submitted papers week by week to the teacher for correction and comment. The holder of one of the University certificates has thus—besides obtaining a certain amount of knowledge—acquired what is quite as important a qualification for a teacher, viz. some experience of the best methods of teaching. The value of such experience seems to be expressly recognised by the Department when it allows a University degree to be equivalent to one of its own certificates ; for as far as mere knowledge goes, such a

degree is not on the face of it any qualification for teaching science at all. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, men obtain a University degree without the slightest knowledge of any natural science. The University Extension certificates seem therefore to combine the qualifications recognised under two heads by the Department—(1) the necessary knowledge, (2) some experience of "University teaching;" and this being the case I am unable to see on what ground the concession I have mentioned could be refused. Such a concession would greatly increase the number of our students; while the second favour which I think we may fairly ask from the State—namely, an attendance grant on evening classes—would go a long way towards solving our financial difficulty. I do not intend to say more than a very few words on this point, for indeed I have left myself no time; but I will content myself with the argument from authority, and will appeal to a remarkable speech which Mr. Forster made a few weeks ago at Bradford. Mr. Forster called attention to the need of efficient night schools to give the people more than elementary teaching; but then the University Extension Movement has already stepped in to fill the gap. The fact is that night schools in many places are played out; and why should not some assistance be given to the system which now supplies the real want? No legislation, I may point out, would be needed; all that would be necessary, is to slightly reduce the number of attendances now required to secure the grant for evening classes, so as to suit the University Extension system. The scheme is doing a national work; is it unreasonable to ask that it should be given some national recognition?

DISCUSSION.

The Rev. Professor D'ORSEY (King's College, London) said he had listened with great interest to the two admirable papers which had been read, and if he offered an opinion on the important subject they dealt with, it was simply because more than forty years ago, long before University Extension was heard of, he had between two and three thousand pupils attending such lectures in Glasgow. That was not an empty boast, but a justification for venturing to speak on that occasion. A little wholesome opposition was an advantage, and there were one or two points in the papers which, perhaps, might require the consideration of the Conference. He hoped he should not be considered illiberal if he ventured to say that one great disadvantage attending the scheme was that it rendered education too cheap. There were many teachers throughout the country who had received a university education, and were abundantly able to communicate knowledge upon the subjects contemplated to be taught, but they were completely thrown out of the field by the admirable lectures offered on such extremely cheap terms by the university. There was a professional point of view, as well as a national one. Many to whom he was speaking were teachers, and had their peculiar interest, as surgeons or physicians had, and if hospitals were established, and were frequented not only by the class for which they were originally intended, but also by the middle and upper classes, surgeons' and physicians' fees would disappear. He knew that would be considered a slight argument, but it was well to look upon the question in all its aspects, and the misappropriation to which he had referred had been abundantly admitted by both the essayists who had addressed the Conference. They should consider whether those very poor people were able to pay or not. The drink bill of England came to £140,000,000 a year, and the population was about 35,000,000. That was £4 a head for drink for every man, woman, and child in the kingdom. He therefore

thought that the people could afford to pay properly for their education. It was admitted that many ladies, and persons of the higher grade, attended the scientific lectures, and that a whole electric staff, who would be receiving high wages, were also glad to avail themselves of the courses, and to neglect the other education provided for them by literary and scientific institutions—science and art classes —and other arrangements already in existence. Much of the instruction conveyed by the university scheme ought to be given in schools of an elementary and secondary character, and he believed we were on the edge of important changes in the nature of the instruction in those schools with regard to natural science. Sir John Lubbock, Dr. Gladstone, and many other leaders in the natural science world, had been contending for a far higher course of instruction ; and if that were secured it would render much of the subsequent instruction unnecessary. Another point was the want of money, and he suggested that something like a sensible fee, not of a penny, but say sixpence a lecture, should be charged. The scheme ought certainly to be self-supporting, and if not—if men would not pay for the instruction which they so "very highly valued," then let them go without it. The knowledge would be offered at an exceedingly low rate if they charged 5*s.* a course, and if people would not pay that moderate sum, they did not deserve education. He believed the scheme was an admirable one, but that it required other principles to be introduced into its working before it would have a national acceptance. He begged pardon for offering what appeared like opposition, but he thought it would elicit discussion, which was one object of the Conference.

The Rev. E. F. M. MacCarthy thought that Professor D'Orsey's arguments had become inapplicable in connection with the question of education, and that it was almost superfluous to attempt to answer them. Was education not to be cheap ? He himself had been educated cheaply, and the cost of the education of many men in that room had probably been defrayed mostly out of public funds, and there was abundance of evidence to show that a very

large number of distinguished men could not have obtained the education they had received unless they had been largely subsidised at public schools and universities by the magnificent endowments of old. The very founders of those endowments accepted the principle that if they wanted to create a demand for a thing they must give it for next to nothing. The schools were free, and why were they free? The reformers of those days were aware that they had to create a desire for a thing for which no desire —or a very slight desire—existed, and consequently they made that free, in order that there should be put within the reach of every one the education of which they, as missionaries of learning, knew the value, but of the value of which the people to whom they spoke were hardly conscious. If he might venture to touch upon a question already referred to, he would say they had perhaps not been altogether wise when they attempted to put elementary education on a general basis in this country, by adopting the system of fees already in vogue in regard to voluntary schools. He had been very much surprised at Mr. D'Orsey's remark that there was a certain Drink Bill, and that the money which that represented might be given by the working classes to the education scheme. But the fallacy was obvious, because the people who drank were not the people who attended the education lectures, and it was found, as a matter of fact, that those people who desired education did not drink, and did not contribute to the drinking bill, and yet were unable practically to find money to attend the lectures. He wished the lectures to be even cheaper than they were, and believed that even the shilling which was charged was one of the weak points; but no doubt it was very desirable there should be some kind of caution money forthcoming from the students themselves, although the fee at the door of the lecture-room should be reduced to the lowest possible amount. He therefore hoped that what had been said so ably by the speakers who had had such practical experience on that subject would have some effect upon the universities, and perhaps also upon the Government. They were to have a Minister of Education,

and he hoped that this was one of the schemes which would form a subject for his enlarged view of the question of education in this country. It was in the north where education had failed to touch thousands and thousands of able and intelligent men that the great demand for the movement existed. In the south they could hardly realise it, although near London they were realising it in many ways. In Birmingham (from which town he came) there had been for many years an admirable institute, and lately a science college had been founded; there were also the schools of King Edward's foundation largely carrying on the work of the Board schools, and all these were adapting themselves to a system of higher education for working men, he thought, with very great and lasting fruit. The miners living in villages had had no such advantages, and he hoped the feeling of the Conference would be that a movement should be made towards educating the people, and that they would, as taxpayers, willingly make what sacrifices they were called upon to make, to help the scheme and to further develop it in many useful directions.

Mr. ROBERTS said he wished to make one or two observations upon the remarks offered by Professor D'Orsey, who had complained that the university offered education on such cheap terms. The university did not offer the education on cheap terms. The complaint against the university was that the charges were too high, and the whole point of the matter was really misunderstood. There was a demand from the outside for education of a certain kind. The university said, practically, that they had no funds to give such education, but if people liked to pay the full cost they would provide lecturers. The university charged the full cost of the education, and paid the lecturers such fees as were an adequate remuneration for their work. It was the local committees who offered the lectures cheap—he meant that the people, who were themselves students attending the lectures, fixed such a price as they found by discussion amongst the inhabitants of the district was suitable to the people, and they had to make up the deficiency by subscriptions. The committee would naturally fix the highest

possible price they could, to diminish the burden upon themselves, and they charged a low fee because they believed the needs of the people made it necessary. It would be realised by a moment's thought that the amount of 1*s.* charged for a ticket did not represent to an artizan the whole cost. He had to purchase his syllabus, his text book, and had to pay postage of his answers to the teacher every week. Instances had occurred where artizans had to lose work, which meant a loss to them of many shillings, in order to attend the lectures. Although the nominal cost might be only 1*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.*, the actual cost to each student was very much greater. Many of the students amongst the artizans were married men, with families, and he knew they felt a difficulty in spending money on their own education, because they thought it ought to go towards clothing and educating their children. The people who had attended the class on electricity at Newcastle contended that there was no education of the same kind which they could get in any other way. The education at night schools, or at the science and art classes, was not the kind of education they required. In speaking of university education, he thought that they ought to bear in mind that it was the method of teaching that constituted university education rather than the extent of ground covered. The main characteristic of university education was that it dealt with the principles of the subject, brought all the mental powers of the student into play, and placed him in a position to become an original investigator for himself. The characteristic of the other kind of teaching was that it gave a number of details and a quantity of information which might be useful, but which was not advantageous from the point of view of mental training. From the statements made by students who had attended university lectures, it appeared that that was the characteristic of the University Extension scheme which had made the scheme so successful. People felt that the method of teaching was quite different from anything they had experienced before ; that the lecturer took them to the heart of the subject, gave them a grasp of principles, and brought

an enthusiasm and a spirit to the work which was in the highest degree inspiring. In the paper read at a previous meeting he had pointed out the way in which he thought the movement might grow into a really national system of education, by the Government offering, as Mr. Grey had also suggested, a grant of 5*s.* or 7*s.* 6*d.* a head on the average attendance (not on the results), throwing all the burden of management upon the university.

Mrs. FENWICK MILLER (Member of the London School Board) said the first point which struck her was the question as to the education given by the University Extension scheme being too cheap. She thought she knew more about the real circumstances of the poor than a good many people did, from the fact that she studied medicine when she was a young girl, and went into the homes of poor people. Of course every doctor knew the thing in exactly the same way, and doctors, often more than clergymen, saw the poor in their natural state. Since then she had been three times elected on the London School Board, and had formed a great many friendships with working men; and she could not but feel that she had acquired more knowledge than was general as to the real circumstances of the working classes. Knowing those circumstances, she was convinced that the entire expenses which attended the courses of lectures were higher than a large proportion of the working classes were able to pay. No doubt a good many people who went to the lectures could afford to pay more than the expenses really thrown upon them, but she protested against Professor D'Orsey's assumption that all the ladies who went to the classes could pay a good deal more. Her experience was that young women were about the poorest class of the whole community. If they took a working man, earning perhaps only £1 a week, with that £1 a week he could do what he liked; but there were a vast number of girls who had not a shilling a week that they could call their own, girls who were clothed and taken care of by their parents; and in too many cases parents did not think higher education was really necessary for their girls, while they did not allow the girls any responsibility in spending

any money. The University Extension scheme offered valuable educational opportunities for that extremely large class of girls who were able to extract from their friends a few shillings for the fee for the lectures, but could not afford to pay much more. She thought it was quite certain that the education was not being given to the working classes too cheaply, but if it were possible to give courses gratuitously that would be a very great advantage to a large number of men who would greatly like to have the education, and would be greatly benefited by it, but could not pay for it. Then the questions presented themselves, first, whether cheap education was demoralizing to the persons who received it; and, secondly, whether it was to the general benefit that such cheap education should be given? She took it that education was one of the things that might be given without demoralizing. They could not give food or clothing without demoralizing the person to whom they were given, but there was something about the increase of intellectual knowledge, and the elevation of the whole nature which came from culture, which made it possible for one human being to accept it from another without payment and without any degradation. People felt they never could pay their teachers for what they did for them. That being so, they saw that the moral and intellectual influences of education were things into which money could but very little enter. It was true that teachers must be paid, for the reason that they must live. Supposing they had all the material comforts of life for nothing, it still appeared to her there would be a great need for the high influences which one human being could bring to bear upon another through education, and that there would be often no degradation whatever in accepting it freely. And so those persons who could not pay sufficient to entirely recompense their teacher, might accept without degradation whatever that teacher was able to give them. Then there was a question whether it was so far to the general good that the working classes should be educated as to make it a desirable thing for those who had means to contribute to the education of the poor?

When they reflected that they were rapidly marching towards a social state such as they had never known before in this country; when they reflected that they were already practically governed by the votes of the working classes, did they not see if they wanted good government—if they wanted a Society which was carried on properly—that they must provide for the education of those classes who were, in an increasing manner, becoming their masters? At the School Board she had strenuously endeavoured to get the science of conduct, based upon the elements of political economy, taught in the elementary schools, though she had not succeeded, but the reasons which had actuated her in urging it were very much more stronger for urging the teaching of the sciences of social conduct to working men, who were taking their share in the daily work of life. The same argument applied to all kinds of culture. The more they elevated men's minds and opened their intelligences by education, the more fit were they made, firstly, to exercise the franchise and to be politically the masters of the state; and, secondly, to fulfil properly their share, whatever their share might happen to be, in the great social scheme in which they were all working.

Mr. MACCRACKEN expressed his indebtedness, as one who had come from a long distance, to the gentlemen who had addressed the Conference for the clear and interesting presentation of what was to him a novel and attractive scheme. In America they had a good many Yankee notions, but they had nothing in the United States of America at all like the proposed scheme. The closest thing to it was, what was called the Chautauqua system, which took its rise at an assembly nearly a dozen years ago of an Educational Convention at a little lake called Chautauqua, the western part of the State of New York, and from which had sprung a system of stimulating work in the different towns of the country by correspondence. In some thousands of towns, villages, or cities, there were Chautauqua circles composed, in a large part, of the teachers of the community, and sometimes of working men

The people accepted the course of study recommended to them by the Chautauqua secretaries, and then underwent examinations through questions put to them from the centre ; but the system lacked that vital and necessary part of an educational system which the University Extension system did not lack, namely, the teacher's presence, the teacher's voice, the teacher's questions, and conferences with those who were to be his pupils. He wished to express his thanks, and the hope that the scheme would extend across the ocean and be taken up in the United States of America. He had been for some years, but was not now, the head of a so-called university (they must not imagine it was quite like one of their universities) in the city of Pittsburgh, in the midst of a population of some 450,000 people, and he knew that in the neighbouring communities there were vast numbers of people, many of them who had come from this country, who would be greatly benefited and elevated by such systems of lectures if they could be had among them. He was convinced that if they were to carry the scheme out as it was carried out in this country, it would be a great blessing to the mining, manufacturing and agricultural regions of his land.

Lord REAY wished to express his complete sympathy with what had been said by his friends, Mr. Alfred Grey and Mr. Cook. Mr. Cook's labours in the cause of the movement were known to all those who took it to heart, and more especially to the members of the Board of the University Extension Society in London. They had heard something about cheap education and its possible demoralizing effects, and he wished to ask, as a Scotchman, of the audience, which he supposed was mainly composed of Englishmen, whether they thought that the cheap education which had been given to the Scotch people, even before the days of John Knox, had been attended with bad effects. It was simply a question of facts, and if rates were applied to education the result would be that there would be less to pay for poor-rates. If the question were put that way, he did not think they would grudge the

money which was asked for. The principles of the Church of Scotland and John Knox, whose name every educationist should pronounce with reverence, had made a University Extension movement in Scotland superfluous. He hoped Mr. Grey would not grudge an increased grant to the Scotch universities because it was not given merely to the higher classes of the Scotch people, but also to the poorest classes who attended the universities. In England they were now beginning what had always been done in Scotland, and, instead of bringing pupils to the universities, they were bringing, as it were, the universities to the homes of the people. That was an extremely important fact, because, as he had said in his opening speech, they must either make science popular, or the people would set their faces against science. That had been already very well pointed out by Mrs. Fenwick Miller. He believed this movement was doing real good to the country. He would like to ask for a little information about the subjects which were most appreciated by the audiences to whom the lectures were delivered. Although he felt that political economy was a very useful subject, he believed Mr. Cook's experience was not altogether one to encourage them to hope that political economy was the most popular subject, at all events, in the centres about London. If the education which was given in the primary school was to bear lasting results, it was obvious that it must be supplemented in rural districts as well as in towns. The only solution was, he thought, that the clergy should devise the means in their various country parishes of doing, in the matter of university extension, what they had already done in the matter of elementary education. Their connection with the universities pointed to them as the natural pioneers of an important movement.

Miss DAVIES said she thought there was much truth in the view that the universities were not rich, and that though the colleges were rich, there were very great demands upon their funds. She thought it would not be wise to look to the universities for assistance, except in the way of pro-

viding teachers. The mode of providing the deficiency of funds by means of local assistance seemed to have much to recommend it, as people were much more interested in a local object than in a general national one.

Mr. GREY wished to point out that they got very little for their money if it was the fact that 5000 undergraduates cost half a million of public money. He repeated the figures he had given in his paper as to the cost of the lectures, and said that if a grant of five shillings per head on the average attendance was given, with the proviso that no sum exceeding £25 should be given to any one centre, that then, even if 200 people attended, paying one shilling each, that would still leave a balance of from £15 to £35 to be forthcoming by local effort. Lord Reay had suggested that he grudged the money given to the Scotch universities; but so far from doing so, he was only glad to see public money devoted to an educational object, and he pointed out that, at the time of the Union, the Scotch had taken care to make it one of the articles of the union that the universities should be maintained in an efficient manner.

Mr. COOK thought that Professor D'Orsey had been rather harshly treated, as it was extremely valuable to have some one who had the courage to put the other point of view before them. Mr. Grey and himself and other speakers had gone on the supposition that this scheme of education, like other schemes, was for the benefit of the people to be taught, and not for the benefit of the teachers. With regard to the speech of Mr. MacCracken, he would remind him that Mr. Burt had communicated his impressions of a visit to America, he believed, to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and had said that miners who had emigrated to America, had, in conversation with him, deplored the fact that they were unable to take advantage of some such system as that they had left behind them in Northumberland. Although no attempt had been made to introduce the system in America, some little attempt had been made in the Colonies and in New South Wales. A young Oxford man, who had emigrated there, had set on foot a system similar to that of

the University Extension of this country. As to the question what subjects were most in favour, Political Economy was no longer in great demand in the London district. Perhaps the reason was that, as professors had told them such different things, people did not feel the same confidence in it that they used to do. The subjects which were most popular were astronomy and physiology, and various portions of English history and English literature. Miss Davies had said that she thought the time would come when they should employ women to do the work, and he was glad to say that the London Society had appointed one lady on their staff of lecturers ; and Mrs. Bryant, a lady of high academical distinction, would in the next season give a course of lectures in one of the London centres on, he believed, moral philosophy. With regard to Miss Davies's suggestion as to the principle of getting money from local districts, he agreed with her it had everything to recommend it, except that the money would not come, and that was why they were forced to look to other sources.

ORGANISATION OF INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

SCHOOL CURRICULA.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 10 A.M.

Chairman: The Hon. E. LYULPH STANLEY, M.P.

ON THE CURRICULUM OF A MODERN SCHOOL.

By H. W. EVE, M.A.,

University College School.

IN the course of the last quarter of a century, there have been revolts in various directions against the monopoly which pure scholarship has long held in our schools. On the one hand, the teaching of Classics is far less pedantic, and in far closer relation with general culture than it was; without lowering the standard of scholarship, time has been found for the simultaneous pursuit of other studies, so that it is by no means exceptional for a clever boy to leave school not only as good a scholar as his father or grandfather's best contemporaries at the same age, but also with a fair grounding in Mathematics and one or two branches of Science, the power of at least reading two modern

languages with comfort, and some acquaintance with English literature. Another form of revolt is the institution of "modern sides" or "modern schools," in many of our public schools, and it is with them that I propose to deal. At present there hardly exists, if there exists at all, a school of the first rank claiming to be exclusively "modern." The distinctive characteristic of a modern side is the entire or partial abandonment of Classics; another *differentia*, for the present at least, is that it contemplates a general education closed at seventeen or eighteen in favour of active life or professional training, though I know that in one of the best of modern sides a continuation of modern side studies at the University is distinctly kept in view. But the bulk of "modern-side" boys—indeed the bulk of boys in general—must expect to close their education at seventeen or eighteen. It is, therefore, chiefly with an *unfinished* classical education that the modern side has to compete; whether, with appropriate continuation at the University, it may not compete with the finished result of the older system, is a question that few would now care to answer in the negative off-hand. When it becomes possible for a modern school curriculum to be completed by a good degree in Mathematics or Science at Oxford or Cambridge, as is to some extent already the case in London, there will be better data for solving the problem. But I am dealing rather with the modern side at school than with its possible development afterwards, and what with the numerous failures of purely classical education, the pressure of competitive examinations, and perhaps the keener realisation of the common paradox associated with the teaching of the dead languages (and it seems as if it would long remain a paradox) I am not surprised the experiment has been so often tried.

Perhaps I cannot do better than recount and criticise by my own experience, as it happened some time ago to be my duty to inaugurate and preside over a steadily increasing modern side. The immediate occasion of its formation was the pressure of outside examinations. The school was

mainly composed of officers' children, in whom a desire to find their way to Woolwich seems almost innate. Now Woolwich requires Mathematics above everything—and more Mathematics than is usually found in classical schools. Besides, mathematicians are often comparatively poor classical scholars. Mathematics being necessarily the first string to our bow, it occurred to us to try and make French and German, both for their utility and because of the comparative ease of learning them, the second string. Thus our boys gave about one-third of their time to Mathematics, nearly one-third to modern languages—while the remaining one-third or rather more was divided among History, Drawing, and Latin, with English as a possible alternative. All the boys were at least thirteen years of age, and had learnt Latin at some time or other. A little later, our facilities for Science teaching having considerably increased, Physical Science (Chemistry and Electricity) was introduced as the alternative for Latin in the higher classes, English being, of course, not wholly dropped, but remaining in a secondary place. Thus the genuine modern-side boy had for his chief work Mathematics, French, German, and Latin in the earlier part; Mathematics, French, German, and Science in the latter part of his course, English subjects being in each case subsidiary. I do not hold this up as an ideal, but it was a system that grew up naturally—though perhaps more from banausic considerations of examinations than from lofty notions of what should be; it turned out from good material a good many successful boys, and enabled them to hold their own in a school where the classical standard was steadily rising. I do not mind, therefore, taking it as a first approximation, and proceed to criticise it. Perhaps I should add that the boys of whom I have spoken were mostly above thirteen.

In the first place, Mathematics, our real staple, is an excellent *pièce de résistance;* there is no playing with the subject, and we always found that the severity of our Mathematics saved us from an inrush of boys who merely

wanted to shirk hard work. At the same time, it may be fairly questioned whether Mathematics should occupy quite the first place in an ideal modern side, except where called for by decided aptitudes or professional exigencies. It is not to Mathematics that the hackneyed quotation—

Emollit mores nec sinit esse feros.

is usually applied. Besides, what I may call the *middle distances* of Mathematics are comparatively dull; the best part of them, the first principles of physics, being now rather divorced from mathematics, and taught by preference in a more experimental fashion.

Next, as to Classics. It is a sad necessity that Greek is out of the question on a modern side; and, therefore, I would remark, by the way, a modern side master is bound to do his best to "hellenize" his pupils without Greek. As for Latin, I should not omit it, but paradoxical as it may seem, teach it simply to discontinue it. To explain my paradox, I must go back to a very old question. Why do we learn Latin at all? Grown-up people learn Spanish or Geology—first, because we want to know them, and in a very secondary degree for mental discipline. But most of us do not want to know Latin, at least in the same sense. Our real reasons are complicated. We want the elements as a help to the structure and vocabulary of our own and various modern languages; we want the elements from another point of view, as the best introduction to systematic grammar; an advanced knowledge of the language we want as a means of acquiring subtlety of perception and balanced literary judgment; we want it, in fact, for all the reasons, which I should be the last to underrate, which have so long reserved its primacy to high classical study. But the average boy is in an intermediate case. He has neither time nor ability to become a scholar; he will never grapple with a stiff unseen passage, or write decent Latin prose, but he is not allowed to stop short at those elements which would be strictly useful to him; he spends precious hours that might really advance him in some other study, only to toil

painfully through the first book of Cæsar, perhaps to learn it by heart. I should like every boy to learn Latin for two years, say from eleven to thirteen, with considerable latitude of beginning earlier or later. At the end of two years I would discontinue it for all who do not wish to go in for a more or less classical education. To the majority it would be a relief, by a few it would be regretted; but bearing in mind the limitation of time, it is probable the linguistic power of those few might be better employed.

This brings us to modern languages, to which I should, I think, assign the first place in my ideal modern school, but only on condition of the most scholarly teaching. It is by their means that the art of *reading*—precision in the use and application of words, and the power of grasping the sense of a passage as a whole—must be learnt. I have already indicated that in learning a language I value the process, at least as much as the result. To compare small things with great, I would apply the famous words of Lessing: "If the Almighty were in the one hand to offer me Truth, and in the other the Search after Truth, I would humbly but firmly choose the Search after Truth." If, then, limitation of time or power compels us to choose *comparatively easy* languages, and the practical necessities of life not unreasonably direct us to *useful* languages, it is all the more important to be sure that we get the full benefit of the process; to set more store by accuracy than by fluency, to insist on those parts of the grammar which, like the German order and the French subjunctives, involve close and delicate reasoning, and above all to secure that careful idiomatic translation *into* English which alone shows that the sense of a passage has been caught. Cultivated men and women, reading French novels in railway carriages and German treatises in their arm-chairs, are apt to forget the real difficulties of translation—sometimes, perhaps, to rest content with that rather vague and general appreciation which a schoolboy betrays by the slip-shod French-English we are all so familiar with. If I could penetrate the veil that shrouds the mysterious personality of the Prize

Editor of the 'Journal of Education,' I think he would bear me out in saying that a majority, even of trained classical scholars, only half see the complete meaning of passages of French and German prose which they would take in their stride, so to speak, in ordinary reading. There are plenty of passages in Lanfrey and Sainte-Beuve, in Lessing and Freytag, to test scholarship in a way comparable, though not perhaps quite equal to, an average "unseen" from Livy or Demosthenes. I have dwelt at some length on this side of the question, because I am convinced that it is only by such scholarly treatment that French and German can furnish the *disciplinary* element in education which Classics have so long supplied. One minor point I may perhaps mention; not only is it possible, by judicious selection, to teach a good deal of history and miscellaneous information in reading French and German books, but there is often an opportunity, which I have hardly found elsewhere, of explaining the difficult *modern* words common to all civilised languages—such words, I mean, as *optimism*, *opportunism*, *cæsarism*, *utopian*, *solidarity*, on which the notions even of older people are sometimes hazy. Perhaps I may add, that while my subject compels to dwell rather on the disciplinary side of modern language teaching, I should not be disposed to neglect conversational fluency. Judiciously employed, conversational teaching may be an admirable handmaid to the severer and more methodical discipline.

To English I should be disposed to assign a somewhat higher place in my ideal modern side than in the actual one which I described, though it is probably not, till quite the highest classes, a good *leading* subject. It is very hard to set a boy down to an English lesson that will force him to exert his mind vigorously and methodically in the same way that a stiff passage of Sophocles or a mathematical problem does. Analysis and parsing are genuine mental exercises at an early stage; but, if well taught, they are soon played out. The other day I set in a scholarship paper one of the hardest pieces I could find for analysis—the first ten lines of Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, with a

single word altered ; it was done perfectly by a bright boy of thirteen, who had never learnt analysis at school, but had just been shown the leading principles of it by an elder brother. Speaking generally, in English there is more room for *teaching* than for learning. You may cultivate by it memory, brightness, interest, and general intelligence, but you will not have many opportunities of getting hard and continuous thinking out of boys, at any rate, in the middle stages of training. On the other hand, a taste for English literature and modern history seems a natural outcome of a modern education, and I cannot imagine the highest class of a modern side better employed, provided they had a teacher strong enough to keep them from mere *reproduction*, than in well-directed attempts at historical reasoning and literary criticism. But it needs the very best of teaching.

It remains to say a word or two of Physical Science, now happily in no danger of being neglected in any education that professes to be modern. It would be interesting, were there time to open the question, whether a secondary education, mainly scientific, is possible or desirable ; whether a good deal of literary training might not be dispensed with, if the record of observations were as carefully criticised in point of form as in point of matter. I am myself rather disposed to postpone exclusive devotion to science to a later stage, and to give the predominance to literature even in a modern education. But I certainly should not be grudging in the time devoted to science ; I should insist on quality rather than quantity, and should take unusual pains to see that descriptions of what had been seen were carefully written and criticised. Too numerous experiments and slovenly note-taking have spoilt a good deal of scientific teaching.

In conclusion, it is admitted on all hands that our educational system is suffering from congestion ; I see no way of relieving it but by dispensing, for a considerable number of pupils, with Classics, perhaps at once the best and the least useful of early studies. There is no evidence

of the decline of classical scholarship among us, and it is not unreasonable to hope that those for whom classical training is a fruitful and healthy discipline will thrive none the worse if separated from those to whom it is a burden. At present all the liberal professions, except the Indian Civil Service and the Army, exact a miserable modicum of Classics as a necessary preliminary to entrance, enough to take up time that might be better spent, far too little to secure anything approaching within measurable distance of scholarship. All mental effort is good, but there might surely be a better form of mental effort imposed than the damnable iteration of two books of Cæsar, or some other "set book," nearly, if not quite, learnt off by heart. University men are apt to think of "Poll" Classics as in the lowest depths; it needs very little familiarity with law and medical entrance examinations to know that there is a far lower depth. Set what value you will on classical discipline—I set the highest—the bulk of boys never really come under it; they stop short in its earlier and duller stages. Many a boy might get his drill from Lanfrey and Guizot if he were not so fully occupied in preparing to be drilled in Livy and Cicero; many a boy might gain literary interest from the study of Shakespeare and Milton whose time is spent on the mere preliminaries to the appreciation of Horace and Virgil.

INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION—ON NUMBERS IN A CLASS—TIMES OF WORK AND REST.

By the Ven. Archdeacon EMERY,

The College, Ely, Cambridge.

THE subject which at the request of the Committee I have undertaken to open appears short and simple, but it is not without complexity and is of much importance. Lord

Bacon, in his 'Advancement of Learning,' declares, "There is a great judgment to be had in the continuance and intermission of exercises." "As the wronging or cherishing of seeds or young plants is that that is most important to their thriving, so the culture and manurance of minds in youth hath such a forcible, though unseen, operation, as hardly any length of time or contention of labour can countervail it afterwards."* As in the cultivation of plants, peculiar conditions of soil, temperature, season, supply of labour, result aimed at, forbid any hard and fast system in minute detail, so is it in the cultivation of the mind of youth,—the education and drawing forth of its intellectual gifts and the exercising and disciplining of its powers for future service, forbid any infallible system or plan of numbers in a class, any unchangeable times of work and rest; for these must be perforce regulated more or less by the circumstances of the school and neighbourhood.

It is evident, however, that of late years there has obtained throughout the country much more uniformity of action in these and other particulars connected with intermediate and higher education. The answers kindly and promptly sent to my enquiries by the head-masters of seventy schools in different parts of the country alone suffice to prove this.† I desire publicly to thank all who thus, often evidently at much inconvenience from stress of work, have sent replies, the substance of which, with my own views, I will now endeavour to give as briefly as possible.

* Page 217, vol. ii., Bacon's Works, edited by Basil Montagu.

† Amongst other head-masters who have honoured me with answers to my printed letter are those of the Schools or Colleges of Repton, Rossall, Woodbridge, Marlborough, Sedbergh, Liverpool, Rugby, Norwich, Huddersfield, Leicester, Leeds, City of London, Merchant Taylors, Charterhouse, Yarmouth, the Grocers' and Haberdashers' Companies, Carlisle, Highgate, Sherborne, Westminster, Wellington, Epsom, Ipswich, St. Chad's, Portsmouth, Trent, Winchester, Reading, Taunton, Yarmouth, Wallasey, Bury St. Edmund's, Cheltenham, Ramsgate, Handsworth, Derby, Walthamstow, Dover, Hereford, Wolverhampton, Tonbridge, Lancaster, Northampton, and many others.

On the whole I have thought it better to limit myself chiefly to boys' schools. There are circumstances connected with the physique, social surroundings, musical and artistic studies, and home duties of girls, as well as with their mental endowments pointing to modifications which can be better treated of hereafter.

The question, too, of what are the best arrangements for day schools rather than boarding schools has been principally considered. Where the school is a mixed one of day children and boarders other elements of variety are introduced, which can only be satisfactorily arranged for in each case or in like groups of cases.

The questions which I ventured to put I will now state *seriatim*, with a summary of answers received.

1. What number of boys or girls can be most advantageously taught in a class?

The limits assigned are fifteen and thirty, not less than the former, not more than the latter, except under special circumstances.

For efficient teaching the teacher should be able to keep the whole class well in hand, and ascertain within the time assigned for the lesson that each child in the class has made due preparation, has had his difficulties met or lightened, has profited by the instruction given.

For satisfactory progress the numbers in a class, too, must in part depend upon being able to obtain a sufficient number of boys or girls of like age, ability, and attainment, so as to work well together, and by emulation and progress help each other forward. This is needed to save the teachers from distraction in their teaching, or from concentrating attention only upon the best children.

I judge that teachers would prefer as a rule to have twenty boys in a class, but this is conditioned by the possibility of providing from the funds of the school means for obtaining good teachers in sufficient numbers.

In several of our best day schools and so called high schools, forty rather than twenty is the number in a class, and the results prove that such a number is compatible

with excellent progress and proper discipline. The strain, however, is great upon the teacher if the majority in such a numerous class are to attain a satisfactory average standard of excellence.

Some of the replies sent in, urge that the numbers in the middle of the school may be somewhat larger than for the junior and senior classes, indicating thus that at the beginning and end of school life more individual attention is required, first to ground the younger pupils well and to develop their ripening powers, and when older, to encourage wider and more difficult, as well as more technically accurate preparation, in view of university or professional life, and of examinations for scholarships, exhibitions, civil service positions, &c.

2. Of what length should the lessons be as a rule?

Excepting special subjects of study, which need longer or shorter time, there seems an uniform agreement that from three quarters to an hour is best. By having a shorter time the minds of the boys get distracted; by a longer they get wearied.

In mathematical studies it is, however, urged that an hour and a half is often better for a lesson, as enabling the pupil to follow more surely the course of reasoning or investigation on which he or she has entered.

Much must of course depend upon the powers of the teacher to interest his class, as well as upon the sanitary arrangements made for supply of fresh air and the like.

Much valuable time and exertion both of teachers and pupils are lost, not to mention serious injury to mind and body which are caused, by want of due attention to the ventilation of the class room.

Experience would seem to point out that the junior classes cannot possibly spend so long a time on a special lesson in class as a senior.

There are practical difficulties also as to nature of building, and position and number of class rooms, which must guide the distribution of time and subjects, and

whether a portion of the time allotted should be given to preparation between lessons.

3. Should there be long or short intervals between the lessons?

There might seem to be a good deal of diversity on this point, the intervals allowed ranging from five minutes, just sufficient to change the books or rooms, to a quarter of an hour or half an hour for exercise and relaxation, or to an hour for preparation in view of the next class.

Considering that the number of school hours is very limited in which the boys can have the benefit of a teacher's instructions, it does seem the best and most provident course to arrange the number and duration of intervals, especially in the morning, so as at once to avoid any over-straining of the children's minds, and yet prevent the irregularity in attention and energy, which intermittent teaching is apt to produce.

The number of subjects which perforce must be studied now to meet modern notions or needs, do by their variety afford, in some sort, mental rest and diversion, and seem to call for as limited an interval as possible in changing from one to another, if steady progress is to be made.

Possibly the best compromise would be to give five minutes between the first and second lesson in the morning, and a somewhat longer time between the second and third. The most profitable arrangements made must, however, depend upon the view taken of the next point.

4. What are the best hours for school or class teaching?

Thanks to many of my distinguished correspondents, I could, did time permit, show in detail the view they take of this question, by presenting and explaining to the Conference the time tables of their schools which they have so readily forwarded, and explained.* Even a cursory in-

* The general plan of the time tables is much the same in many schools, with changes of detail to meet special circumstances. It might seem invidious to select any for publication in connection with the paper; but a careful comparison on some future occasion might be found profitable.

spection of them shows the great care taken to economise the practicable hours of study, and to meet as far as may be the social as well as mental and other difficulties which present themselves.

For a full day the total number of hours which can be utilized in actual school teaching is at most five to five and a half. The chief part of this time should be, and is in fact, in the morning from 9 or 9.15, or 9.30, to 12 or 12.30 or 1. The morning is acknowledged to be the best and freshest time for work.

Very few schools have now lessons before breakfast, even where they are chiefly or wholly boarding schools. I venture to urge that if it is thought well to have an hour for preparation or lessons before breakfast, great care should be taken that the boy or girl has some light refreshment previously, considering the many hours which have elapsed since the meal of the previous evening.

In day schools it is not generally possible to commence school work till 9 or 9.30, from the difficulty of distance over which the boys or girls have to walk or ride from their homes. This walk or ride, let me remark, is generally conducive to a healthy condition of body and mind (and so of educational progress), as it gives some wholesome exercise and also time for digestion of breakfast. It is not a good thing for children or adults to sit down to study within a short time of either of the principal meals of the day. And this recognised fact has, I suppose, with other causes, resulted in considerable changes and experiments with regard to the afternoon lessons.

When I was a boy, now more than forty years ago, at the City of London School, the hours were from 9 to 12 in the morning, and from 2 till 5 in the afternoon in summer, and 2 till 4 in winter. Drawing lessons and the like were taken from the half holidays. At that school now, and in others similarly circumstanced, the interval between morning and afternoon lessons has been curtailed and school breaks up on full days about three.

In some of the modern high schools, especially of girls,

there is a tendency to restrict class teaching, especially of classics and mathematics, to the morning hours, and to leave the afternoon free, or in part optional, for preparation at school or at home. In such cases the class teaching is from 9 to 1, four hours only.

In some schools, especially mixed day and boarding, and where the pupils do not live at any great distance, the plan seems to be to have school from 9 to 12.30 in the morning, and in the afternoon from 3 to 4.35 or 5 in summer, and 4 to 5.30 or 6 in winter, the last being arranged with a view to getting more time for athletics, football, &c., in the shorter days.

Looking generally to the social habits and the family arrangements for meals, &c., I cannot but think that the hours which are best for day schools, except in cases where the children come from long distances, are a modification of what was almost universal in day schools and in most others forty years ago, viz., on full days from 9 to 12.30, and from 3 to 4.30 or 5, and on half days from 9 to 12.30 or 1. The day is thus more equally divided, the home arrangements are generally met, and sufficient time is given between the evening meals for private study and preparation of lessons for the next day. This leads on to the next point.

5. What time should be given for preparation out of school ?

This must depend in part upon the age of the scholar. Half an hour or an hour is amply sufficient for a child under ten ; an hour and a half or two hours between the ages of ten and twelve, whereas afterwards the time may be in many cases not unreasonably increased to two hours and a half or three hours, and between the ages of seventeen and nineteen to even three-and-a-half hours.

Many schoolmasters are favourable to shorter time for preparation, but this must depend upon their own manner of teaching, the length and variety of lessons set, and the mental capacity or readiness of the pupil.

Much greater care and consideration in many cases is

required than is sometimes shewn on these points. The master may lay down as a rule that only so much time should be given to preparation and yet compel the eager or timid child to go beyond that time by demanding too much, and adding on, as punishments for not being sufficiently prepared, long or irritating impositions, which break the spirit and strain or permanently injure the physical powers.

It is not possible in this paper to touch more than cursorily on causes which render it difficult to assign the limits of time of preparation, or to point out how such time may be divided or best employed. As far as possible, within certain limits connected with the progress of the whole class, the good master or mistress will carefully consider the special circumstances and capabilities of each pupil, and arrange the quantity of work to be prepared out of school accordingly. A sensible, observant, painstaking teacher may soon distinguish between an idle, careless pupil who comes unprepared, and one who is really striving and working, but yet is unable, especially when entering on a new subject or a higher class, to master the work set. I pass on to the next point.

6. Should there be two or more half holidays in the week, or should Saturday be the weekly holiday?

It seems to me there is a pretty general consensus that if the true interests of the scholars are considered, two half holidays in the week as a rule are sufficient and much to be preferred to a whole holiday on Saturday. With more than two half holidays the time for lessons is so shortened and broken up that continuity of study and exertion is imperilled, and unnatural forcing on three days results, to make up for the alternating half days as well as Sunday rest.

It is honestly acknowledged that many teachers would prefer a whole holiday on Saturday, but that, for boys at least, the other plan is far better. Those who have had large experience state that in very many cases the boys find it hard to keep up or provide for a whole day's amuse-

ment, and withal are often led to neglect preparation for school on the eve as well as the evening of the holiday.

From Friday afternoon till Monday morning is a great gap in study to come every week. Many boys, more perhaps than girls, at present, have a conscientious objection to work in any holiday time, possibly thinking, unconsciously in part, that the masters only give such holidays for relaxation and rest from study.

Fifty out of the seventy schools concerning which I have made enquiry, give two half holidays a week, a few give three, some three in summer and two in winter, a very few a whole holiday on Saturday. In Primary Schools for the poorer classes there are many reasons in favour of the Saturday whole holiday which do not apply to the schools now under consideration. Where, however, the system of two half holidays a week exists, it will do good probably to teachers and taught to have at least one whole day's holiday in each term, and this not necessarily on a Saturday. What I have now urged applies, be it remembered, chiefly to boys' schools, the circumstances of girls' schools possibly requiring other arrangements.

The seventh and last point I propose to touch upon is—

7. When should the principal holidays of the year be given, and for what number of weeks respectively?

It is evident that the three term system is now nearly universal. However much some may prefer still the two division system of the year, with longer holidays at Christmas and Midsummer, and shorter ones to mark the other quarters, it would not be easy to return to it, or to alter much the present nearly universal arrangement of three terms, about thirteen weeks each, and three vacations at Christmas, Easter and Midsummer, amounting together to about another thirteen weeks. In some schools I find to my amazement the three sets of principal holidays amount to fifteen weeks, viz., five at Christmas, three at Easter, and seven at Midsummer; but the majority are satisfied with thirteen, and some, distinctly day schools, with ten or twelve.

I remember at my own school, in years gone by, we had three weeks at Christmas, three or four days only at Easter, and five weeks at Midsummer. Among my boyish triumphs was the obtaining for the school an extension to ten days at Easter, when the late Rev. Dr. G. F. W. Mortimer, the Head Master, came ;—whose name should ever be held in high honour by those who rejoice in the wider range of studies at the public schools, and in the greater consideration now paid to the varied powers of children, and the multiform openings for their employment in life.

In this building I may be pardoned for introducing the name of the City of London School, and pointing out that even now the principal holidays at the three chief times are there, I believe, three, two, and five weeks respectively, though my old schoolfellow the present able head master would, I fancy, prefer four, two, and six. I do think there is some danger of holidays being extended too far, and the comfort of masters and mistresses, rather than the wishes of parents or the educational progress of the children being considered. At any rate, for day schools intended to meet the needs of what, for a better title, I would call the great middle class of society, I venture to deprecate further extension of holidays as injurious to the children's progress and full of discomfort and burdensome increase of expense to parents.

As to the times when these holidays should be given, there is no question about Christmas and little or none about Midsummer so-called. Nearly all schools begin the six or seven weeks of the Midsummer holidays towards the end of July. Considering the difficulty of working in hot weather, it might seem better to commence the summer vacation at the beginning rather than the end of July, as it used to be. But there is not any likelihood with the three term system of thus reverting to the older practice. It is, however, very essential for the comfort of families and arrangement of plans for visiting, touring, &c., that this principal vacation should begin and end as near as may be at the same time for boys' and girls' schools alike.

The greatest difficulty is as to the spring vacation. Some would at all risks and inconvenience keep distinctly to Easter: and, speaking as a churchman, I must say my sympathies go entirely with these maintainers of the ancient ways.

The majority of the schools at present keep to this: and it should be noted that where a fixed time in April is rather chosen for the two or three weeks' break, there is also given a holiday from Good Friday till the following Tuesday or Wednesday in Easter week, which introduces yet another break in school work and life.

If, in connection with what I have now read, any points be raised, possibly one will be this, which though in some sense a subordinate one, yet is not to be lightly regarded in view of the religious feelings awakened, the disturbance and difficulties in connection with the reunion of the children of the same family who may be going to schools which have diverse practice on this point, and with other matters of like kind.

In conclusion, I can but apologize if my treatment of the subject has appeared dry or uninteresting. My object has been to throw out some practical hints, founded partly on my own experience, but chiefly on the experience and plans of others of proved knowledge and ability; and I shall be more than satisfied if these hints should help in any degree to further useful discussion.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. STOY (University of Jena) addressed the Conference in German. Considering the subject of Modern Schools, he enunciated the following principles :—

1. The foundation of well-organised Modern Schools (in Germany, Realschule) is a matter of absolute necessity at our age.

2. The Classical Schools (Gymnasium) alone are not able to satisfy all the demands of higher education.

3. The Realschule, or Modern School is, however, not to be a *banausic* institution ; but its aim is to raise the minds of the young on the platform of nobler views of life, an aim which is the duty of the Classical School ; but it too often fails to do so.

4. The Modern School does not teach Greek, but it has to hellenise the minds of the youths indirectly.

5. The Modern School has to teach mathematics, science, modern languages and history, according to a rational method.

6. A Realschule, or Modern School, cannot be created by laws and articles, but by thorough competent masters—not by *measures*, but by *men*.

7. There is no other way or agency by which to get good teachers but the Training College, conducted by a Principal able to work in the spirit of such educators as Thomas Arnold.

8. The educational system of Herbart, the German educational thinker, surpasses all others in soundness and thoroughness ; for it is based upon the two most powerful agencies of human life—Science and Love.

Mr. H. C. BOWEN thought all would agree that they could hardly have had any one better fitted to speak about the modern side of a great public school than Mr. Eve. For his own part, as far as his own small experience of public schools went, he was in agreement with Mr. Eve in almost everything he had said; but he seemed to have somewhat underrated the value which the teaching of English Literature might be made to have in modern schools. He himself, he said, had had some considerable experience in the matter in connection with middle schools. He had tried how the work in English Literature might be profitably done, not only with the classes Mr. Eve had suggested, namely the higher classes in modern schools, but with some of the very lowest classes, and with children as young as nine or ten. If English Literature was taught, as too often it was taught, simply as a subject for examination—there being, as Professor Meikle-

john had described on a previous day, a child on one side, a book in the middle, and the teacher on the other side—the object being to get up a certain number of notes, written with extremely little appreciation of the artistic value of the work; if that was the way English Literature was taught, then he thought it would prove of very little value—and more than ever useless if the subject of the lessons was made some History of Literature, which produced only a secondhand knowledge, and in many cases a third-hand knowledge. On that point he knew there was no difference between himself and Mr. Eve; but he would suggest, as an amendment, that the teaching of English Literature should begin at an earlier age. He did not know that he fully agreed with Mr. Eve respecting the importance of Latin. He allowed that it was possible to make Latin a very valuable mental training, but the way Latin was taught in most schools in England at present entirely prevented it from being a mental training at all. If the work given to children to do continued to be the learning of lists of declensions, with a large number of irregularities —irregularities which in all their lives they would probably never meet with again—it could not be productive of any great good. That was not the way Mr. Eve would propose, he knew; but that was the way Latin was taught at most schools. He believed they might economise time very considerably in the teaching of Latin, and still get from it good results. He did not think that in their modern schools it was necessary to turn out Latin altogether; but it should be taught with greater economy of time and labour, and thus leave room for other highly important work at present cramped and crowded out. With regard to the valuable paper which Archdeacon Emery had read, he hoped that when they got the paper in print they would find added to it the statistics spoken of, as he was sure they would be of great value to all teachers, as a record of what was being done in a large number of schools all over the country. He understood that Archdeacon Emery condemned whole holidays, and considered that the

boys lost something if the masters gained something by them. He would not enter into the question whether the master should be considered rather than the boys—though he thought it was a most valuable thing in every school to keep the staff as fresh, as cheerful and as bright as possible; and this was very much helped by allowing the master to have one day to himself. In large schools, where the children went in at nine or half-past nine in the morning, and went back again in the afternoon to four or five o'clock, and had to sit down to their home work almost immediately, and then go to bed—he was speaking mainly of boys—they really had no time at all left for home-life except on Sundays; and he thought people might have their children in the house one day in the week, without everything being turned upside down. At home, the mother—and if the father got home early from work—the father also, and the elder sisters might all do something towards educating (in the larger sense of the word) the younger members of the household. People were getting too much into the way of thinking that *educating* belonged entirely to schools—that parents could send their children to a schoolmaster or a schoolmistress, and, if they paid a sufficient sum, have little or no responsibility left; and if children turned out badly, lay the blame on the school. He thought that a great deal of most valuable education was lost to children who were cut off so much from home life. . He was an intense believer in the value of home life, not only for children but for the *parents* also. It was not wholesome for parents to imagine that they could get rid entirely of their responsibility in forming the characters of their children. There should be one day for pleasure, recreation and intercourse between parents and children; and Sunday, particularly in England, was not a day in any way fitted for the purpose. The picture galleries were not open, and in various other ways parents and children were hampered in what they could do. On that ground, and not simply on the ground that a teacher should have his whole holiday, he put in a plea for the whole holiday.

Dr. STRACHAN apologized for intruding himself upon the meeting, not being a teacher, but for many years he had taken a deep interest in the question of education from a physiological point of view. In the field of medical practice he had seen a great deal of the work of schools, and of their effect upon children, and he hoped therefore that he might be allowed to give his views on some points which had been referred to in the paper read by Archdeacon Emery. The first point which struck him in the paper (he had not heard the whole of it) was one in connection with which he believed there was a great fallacy, looking upon it from a physiological point of view—that was that a variety of subjects in school study gave rest to the child's mind. His conviction was that the strain of attention to whatever subject was being taught was fatiguing to the mind. A child who had been attending one class and giving great attention, and perhaps engaged keenly in competition, had his mind kept in a state of strain during the whole of that time, and after that strain it required relaxation. It was not rest for him to go immediately into another class and strain the mind again upon another subject. To think that that was rest was a fallacy which produced a great deal of injury. After a child had been engaged for a time in study he ought to have a considerable time of relaxation before he again began to study any other subject. The next point was the number of hours which ought to be given to school work. Archdeacon Emery mentioned that in a school it was a usual thing to study from five to five-and-a-half hours. It struck him that that was pretty moderate, for if the time were well distributed during those five or five-and-a-half hours, probably the child could keep up the attention during most of the time, and might have time for relaxation besides. Immediately after that they came to the question of preparation, which he found took from half an hour or an hour to three hours, added to five hours. That he believed was altogether excessive. It was an understanding in physiological law that for an adult five or six hours of severe

mental strain or work was as much as a man could very well do, and to expect that children, while the brain was still growing, whatever the age might be, could do more work than a man could do, was, he thought, preposterous. As to the question of the necessity for preparation studies, what were the children supposed to be doing during the five hours which they were at school? He understood children went to school to be taught, and if they were taught during those five-and-a-half hours he did not know what the need was for preparation at night. He knew it was considered that a child could scarcely be taught, and that he ought to learn for himself. The question was as to learning from the spoken word or from the printed word. If children learned from a book they learned by the same process that they learned from a speaker speaking to them; the ideas were conveyed to the mind by the words; the word was the mere vehicle, and with children the spoken word was very much more familiar, as it appealed much more readily to the mind than the printed word, of which they had had comparatively little experience. He considered that the whole of school work ought to be done in the school. It must be remembered that school work was not the only education which a child required. There was a great deal more required to be learned. A boy's whole time nowadays seemed to be spent between learning for school and in school. That was a very narrow view to take of the requirements of life. A very great deal more required to be learned, and there was a great deal more preparation required to be undergone to fit a child to take his place in life afterwards, and therefore some time ought to be allowed for that purpose. With regard to holidays, instead of having thirteen weeks or more of holidays, he would say there ought to be a half holiday every day. He knew that seemed ridiculous according to the present way of managing a school, but for the work he spoke of with children it required to go on daily, not for thirteen weeks at a stretch and then months without it altogether. It ought to go on every day, and if those

thirteen weeks were divided up, he believed it would give nearly a half holiday every day, and that would be far better for the children. As to the other holidays, he should say that a month in the summer to go to the seaside was all the long vacation children would require; and all the rest of the time he should say they ought to have a half holiday every day in order that they might learn something outside the school.

Miss MARIAN GREEN (Blackburn High School) thought that in the early stages of learning a language a child should aim at gaining an acquaintance with the language approximating in kind to his knowledge of his own. The more scholarly treatment would come after some knowledge of a language had been gained.

The Rev. R. D. SWALLOW (Head Master of Chigwell School) thought that a good many of those present like himself, with a good deal of reluctance had given up a part of their hard-earned holiday to attend the Conference, but they had been rewarded by hearing the excellent papers of Mr. Eve and Archdeacon Emery. Mr. Eve had had to deal with the modern side question in Wellington College and University College School, where there was very excellent material to work upon. The difficulty of schoolmasters in small schools such as his own, was that the number of the boys they had who were fit to be worked upon, and of whom much could be made, was very small indeed. Mr. Carlyle had said that the world was made up of knaves and fools, mostly fools, and that certainly was the case in the small schools. They had not in those schools the opportunity of getting the best boys by means of scholarships, nor had they always the opportunity of keeping the best boys, but were obliged almost always to pass them on. They were also sometimes obliged to take pity on those poor creatures who were superannuated from such schools as Wellington College, not from any fault of their own, except that God had placed them in the class of those who were to be written down as fools. The masters of small schools were therefore under this difficulty,

and he had himself failed to discover that the teaching of French or German to those boys was as useful for them as the teaching of Latin and Greek after the old fashion. He therefore thought that the masters of small schools could not altogether apply to themselves Mr. Eve's very excellent advice. Another difficulty for them was that in teaching modern languages, they were teaching languages which the Universities did not encourage, or to which they gave very little encouragement. He believed that at last there was a modern language tripos at Cambridge, and he had heard that Jesus College intended offering, next year, a modern language scholarship. Until the Universities encouraged the teaching of French and German, he was afraid that in small schools they would be in a difficulty. Every father and mother of course thought their own goose a swan until they had proved to the contrary, and fathers and mothers would insist upon their boys learning those subjects which might eventually, if not at first, lead them on to the highest University distinctions. He wished to add one word on the subject of holidays, and of course he spoke as the head master of a more or less mixed school, but chiefly boarding. He found there was no difficulty in inducing day-boys at such a school as his own, to fall in with the views most conducive to the interests of the boarders in his house. He was going to make a very radical suggestion with regard to half-holidays, and it was, perhaps, only putting in another way the words of Dr. Strachan. He would suggest that they should have no fixed half-holidays at all. He believed if they could spread the work over the six days of the week, it would be better than having long hours on certain days of the week, and then finding themselves with two or three days in the week, certainly two, which were especially troublesome in winter, when many boys hardly knew what to do with themselves in consequence of wet weather, and of having few amusements. Dr. Strachan had suggested that the strain of mental work was too severe in connection with preparation, and asked what was the good of preparation. He did not know how to answer him, and he

did not think any schoolmaster would venture to answer him without asking him to go to a school and see. It was obviously useless to attempt to teach boys during five hours unless some preparation had been made beforehand. With regard to the length of holidays in summer, he wished that the head masters of large public schools would be perfectly honest about their summer holidays. He had been told by one of the masters of a famous school that they never gave more than six weeks' holiday in summer; but he found from a boy attending the school, that during the summer term sundry school distinctions had been gained, and an extra week's holiday was therefore given. He also found the Prince of Wales, or some royal personage had visited the place, so a second extra week's holiday was given. He had been told over and over again that that school never gave more than six weeks' holiday, but those six weeks were always being extended from some cause or other. With regard to what Mr. Bowen had said about the connection between home life and school life, he should be sorry to appear to depreciate the importance of home teaching and home influence. Instead of Mr. Bowen's division of the week into two parts, one part when the boys were under the influence of the school, and the other part when the boys were under the influence of the home, he would rather divide his year into two parts, and say that during term time the boys belonged altogether to the school, and during their holidays they belonged altogether to the home.

Miss BEALE, of Cheltenham, said she cordially agreed with Dr. Strachan when he said that a half-holiday every day was a better arrangement than giving a whole Saturday holiday. As to Latin, it had been said that language was taught in a way which did not teach people to think, and certainly they had felt a great difficulty in getting books which enabled them to teach Latin and Greek as they wished to do. They thought it was very desirable to begin with modern languages. The young had no taste for grammatical abstractions, and therefore it was better to begin

with the simpler languages. After that they wanted to take up Latin and Greek at a time when the pupils' minds were more developed, and they found the greatest difficulty in getting anything but books written for baby boys. She thought there might be some one at the Conference—perhaps a foreigner—who would be able to write for them a grammar for intelligent people, people who were no longer boys.

Mr. PHILIP WELLS said he had heard Archdeacon Emery's paper with very much pleasure, but was sorry he was not present during the time Mr. Eve was speaking. He thought it would be desirable to get as many representative opinions as possible of different styles of schools, and therefore he would state that his was a private school, which he had been conducting for 25 years, mainly himself, but of course with the assistance of other masters. He could not agree with what had been said as to the number of boys in a class. It had been stated that from 15 to 30 might be taught perfectly in a class, but there was very much doubt about that. It was his practice to say that no master, were he ever so good, could teach with efficiency more than 12 boys, and he never allowed his classes to go beyond that number. He knew very well that in that particular he would be at issue with the masters of large schools, because those schools must be large or they could not make their pupils pay ; but his own theory was that schools such as his must be small or they could not give efficient teaching. To teach was one thing, but to test was another. If there were two or three hours' preparation the teaching was not done by the master but the testing only. He could lecture to any number, but if he had to test the knowledge of each individual much more time and much more skill would be required. The preparation time was really the teaching time, and if that were so, who was to do the teaching? In his school most of the day pupils who wanted real work came for preparation, and he, as the eldest master, was always there for preparation. As to classes of 40, 60, or 80 boys ; to teach them was easy but the testing was the work,

and he was sure that there was hardly any man or lady engaged in tuition who would not find it exceedingly difficult to test a class of more than 12.

The Rev. Canon DANIEL (Battersea Training College) said he had not heard the papers read, but he had gathered from the remarks of the various speakers the general line of argument pursued in each paper, and wished to offer a few comments on some of the remarks he had heard. As to the general principle involved in the saying that "change was rest," he agreed with those who thought so. It was a rest to pass from a subject like classics to mathematics, and from mathematics to physical science, but they could not go on changing for ever and finding rests, and the reason was obvious. Attention was requisite for every exercise, and attention involved the consumption of nervous energy and nerve matter. Whatever the subject might be there was a certain amount of the general energy of the system consumed, and there was, therefore, less available for any other subject that might be taken up. It was perfectly true that in the afternoon a child could not do what he could in the morning, and that in the evening he could not do what he could in the afternoon ; still it was possible to choose school work to suit those fluctuating states of energy throughout the day, and he thought a skilful teacher would devise his time-table in such a way that when energy was at the maximum the child should be engaged upon his severest work. The forenoon should be spent upon the most arduous exercise, the afternoon, if used at all, devoted to lighter work, and the evening, instead of being devoted as it frequently was to the acquisition of new matter, should be mainly used in making new combinations of the information that had been received. One speaker seemed to think that preparation was utterly unnecessary if proper teaching were given, but he himself was far from thinking that. A child learnt nothing but what he taught himself. They might speak by the hour, but unless the child was attending, and comparing what was said with what he had already learnt, and reasoning

about what was said, he learnt absolutely nothing. Preparation was absolutely necessary for effectual teaching. The child must co-operate with the teacher, and the child must do more than the teacher. What was of importance was not what the teacher did for the child, but what he got the child to do for himself. One gentleman had spoken about fools, and about their preponderance in small schools, but the fact was that fools very frequently were only wise persons misunderstood. Fools were wise men whose sagacity had never been discovered, and the persons who were mainly to be blamed for their folly were the parents and the teachers. With regard to holidays, he thought that many high schools in particular were at a great disadvantage for the want of occasional holidays. In his own church they had festival days, they got a holiday for the saints' days, the founder's day, and other days. He had once suggested that the high schools should have a hagiology of their own, and that holidays should be kept in memory of the great educational reformers.

Miss FRANKS (Camden Road Training School for young children) said, she thought that for children under ten years of age there should be no preparation of lessons at all, if they spent from five to five-and-a-half hours in school. She had seen very much of the evils of so-called preparation, extending over two or three hours, and, indeed, shutting out all possibility of home life. She thought the children she had referred to should go home after five or five-and-a-half hours' work, quite free from all responsibility as to lessons, with two exceptions. They might perhaps be allowed to go over, or reproduce something which had been made very clear to them during school hours, or they might have a very small task given to them in the shape of some definite work, such as an easy problem in mathematics, the process having been shown to them in the school hours. If it were asked how such pupils would make sufficient progress without preparation, she would like to answer that the progress depending upon undue encroachment on the legitimate relaxation to be found in home life should

be dispensed with. She thought the excessive requirements of so-called preparation were often the consequence of competition on the part of teachers in high schools, each aiming at giving a larger amount of instruction than his peer, and all aiming at quantity rather than quality. As a substitute for so-called preparation, she would suggest better and clearer teaching, more suitable subjects, a more measured quantity of the subjects, and at the same time constant oral and written test questions entering as part of every lesson.

The Rev. Dr. GUY said he had not had the good fortune to hear the papers read, owing to an accident, but he had heard one remark by Archdeacon Emery about holidays spoken of. It seemed to him they ought to try to arrive at some definite holiday for Easter, and as a practical person he would ask, whether something could not be done to bring pressure upon schoolmasters and schoolmistresses to agree to keep to the old fashion of the country. If they could by any possibility get a fixed time for Easter holidays it would be of great convenience to a great number of families.

Mr. EVE (University College School), referring to Mr. Bowen's remarks, stated what he wished to say was, that he doubted whether English literature could be made the staple of a modern school. Much should be taught, and no one could teach it better than Mr. Bowen; but he doubted whether they could secure by means of it that continuous methodical thought, for boys, say, from twelve to sixteen, which they could from some other subjects. Miss Green had criticised a little his phrase as to the scholarly treatment of modern languages. He agreed with her that with young children they must get on as well as they could, and he thought, that probably the most scholarly mind was the least likely to intrude the mysteries of higher scholarship on the youngest pupils. He therefore thought that he and Miss Green were pretty much agreed. Mr. Swallow asked what small schools were to do. The only solution he had been able to think of was that small schools should confine

themselves to one line. A school not likely to number more than a hundred boys could not possibly have a classical and a modern side, much as the residents in a town might wish it. It ought to be possible for the schoolmaster himself to fix it in one line, or for the Endowed School Commissioners to fix the line for him. To attempt with so small a number of boys to have two organizations side by side was out of the question.

Archdeacon EMERY said that those who had taken part in the discussion had partially answered one another. With regard to Mr. Wells' remark, that in a comparatively small school it would be hardly possible to get twelve boys of equal power, and would be impossible to get thirty or forty boys that could work altogether; no doubt from a private school point of view Mr. Wells was right, and in such schools they must have smaller numbers, say from fifteen to twenty in a class. With respect to home life, considering a quarter of the year was given to holidays, also Sunday and two half holidays, or a whole holiday in every week, he thought there was a tolerable quantity of home life. They were increasing the number of subjects to be studied every year, from science and learning rapidly advancing. There was a demand for an increase of subjects of study, and they must try to meet these wants of modern days by good teaching, and better books, and by improving the physique of the children, so as to enable them to work harder. An old-fashioned man like himself would rather go back to the old curriculum, and not go so much into details of many subjects, but would rather lay a good foundation of education in three or four subjects. But that idea seemed to be going out of fashion everywhere. With respect to confining all school work to school time, that seemed to him impossible. There must be time for preparation, but he thought masters and mistresses ought to be a little more careful as to what they set to be prepared. If pains were taken with new lessons, to give boys or girls a little idea of what they had got to prepare, he thought it would be very successful; but to put little boys on hard

pieces of classics or mathematics to do at home, and then to put them under impositions because they were not able to make anything out of them, seemed cruel. A good deal must depend upon the intelligence and thoughtfulness of the teacher as to what the teacher gave to be prepared. With respect to the change of study being a great strain, no doubt it was a strain. They must have strains, and that could not be helped in this workaday world; but he thought a change of study was also a great relaxation. It had been discovered in recent years, certainly in his own school, and he supposed in most schools, that they could introduce a larger number of subjects and save the strain on the children by giving a variety of subjects. He, however, thought that action might be pressed too far. There must not be too many lessons nor too many subjects, but if the subjects were properly appointed, there was not such a great strain as there would otherwise be. A half hour or an hour given by a kind parent, or some one who could give a little assistance, would be a great relief to the child. As to home influence, no doubt that was a very important thing, but with respect to education there were a large number of parents who were not able to do much to assist teachers in the way of home influence. As to the Easter holiday, a friend had suggested to him that a good way out of that difficulty would be to get the Church to fix Easter in April, but he did not think that was very likely to be done at present. A very great deal of difficulty had been experienced centuries ago with respect to Easter, and he did not think, with all respect to schools, that the Church was likely to enter again into that particular subject. As to holidays, if they were to have two or three half-holidays a week as well as saint days and other special days, it was rather difficult to know when the boys were to go to school; and it would seem that they would be nearly always at home. Possibly he should be criticised by kind friends, but he hoped that what he had said might turn out to be of some profit.

THE COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES OF BOARDING AND DAY SCHOOLS.

By the Rev. Prebendary BRERETON.

I AM afraid I must begin by saying that the subject of this Paper was to some extent prejudged when it was placed in my hands. My only claim to be listened to in an Educational Conference is that for many years of my life I have been much occupied with efforts to lay the foundation of a system of public Boarding Schools for the Middle Class. It has not indeed been altogether from preference that I have paid most attention to boarding schools, but because I have been mainly interested in the requirements of rural residents; and for these boarding schools are almost indispensable. Even the improvement, great as it has been, of the elementary schools in villages, does not, and cannot meet all the wants of villagers. Rural children would be placed at great disadvantage in the preparation for life if day schools, however largely distributed, were not supplemented by boarding schools. But in grappling with the problem of establishing boarding schools, partly as alternatives and partly as supplements to rural day schools, I have certainly come to think that the balance of comparative advantage does, in educational value, lean to the side of boarding schools.

The difference has frequently been pointed out between Education and Instruction; between the preparation for wise conduct in after-life, and the acquisition of knowledge under competent teachers. The latter can be given equally well in day schools and boarding schools. The former implies something more, which must be supplied either in the home or in the boarding school. The real question I have been asked to consider in this paper is, whether that portion of education which day schools cannot give may be given with advantage away from the parents' home.

The parent is by natural presumption, and as a first principle both of religion and politics, the educator of the

child. As such he is responsible both for teaching and training—for the formation of character as well as the acquisition of knowledge. The day school invites him to transfer the teaching to professors of that art. He may do this and yet retain within his own personal care the training. But boarding schools offer to take charge both of the training and teaching. Which is best? That the parent should accept this offer or decline it? Shall he send his child to school for a few hours in the day or for many consecutive months in the year?

I have said that to rural residents there is often no choice. The child must be sent away from home or practically not get even the teaching necessary for his reasonable advance in life. But the freedom of the parents' choice is often limited not only by the distance or inferiority of the day school, but by the presumed costliness of a good boarding school. I think I may perhaps render real service to the cause of Education, if I can call attention to what I believe to be the truth, that as a general rule, applicable to all grades of society, good boarding schools may be found less costly to the parent than day schools and home living. I am far from saying that the cost should decide the question of comparative advantage; but I wish to remove the prejudice against boarding schools on the ground of much greater expense.

The upper classes in England have, at least for boys, accepted the principle that education away from home is to be preferred. The resort of the sons of the more wealthy families to the more celebrated Public Schools has led to a custom of allowing the teachers to add to their professional salaries the profits derived from lodging and feeding their pupils. Whatever may be said in favour of this system in schools for the higher classes, it has undoubtedly had an injurious effect upon the middle class, in leading them to suppose that public boarding schools to be good must be expensive.

The cost of teaching depends, of course, on the supply of qualified teachers, and will presumably be the same in

day schools and boarding schools. The supervision of the scholars out of school hours and the responsibility for their conduct and character must be added to the cost of tuition in boarding schools. But even with this proper addition to the food, service and lodging, the economy of providing for numbers, especially of the same age and requirements, is so great that the comparative cheapness of the boarding school alongside of the home and the day school may with some confidence be affirmed.

I am Chairman of the governing body of the Devon County School, of the Norfolk County School, and of Cavendish College at Cambridge; and I am also responsible for the management of a successful boarding school for girls. I am speaking within my personal knowledge if I say that the opportunities of procuring the most wholesome food and needful service at the lowest cost are much greater in the hands of the master or mistress or matron of a boarding school than of any one of the parents at home. The same applies to baths and all sanitary appliances and to medical supervision. As soon as the important distinction is drawn that the teacher derives no profit from the board and is also relieved from all anxiety in case of loss, he stands in the position of a parent who is neither needy nor greedy, but wishes only the most favourable conditions for his child's health and well-doing.

I will not trouble the meeting with figures, though I could, of course, supply, from the experience of the schools I have mentioned, ample illustrations of the principle that I am sustaining. Experience proves what reason would expect, that homes designed, built, fitted and furnished, and managed with a view to the requirements of learners, are on the whole * cheaper than homes in which the learners,

* If the advantage of comparative cheapness can be claimed for boarding over day schools, it may be worth while to suggest whether the unhealthy conditions of the overcrowded populations in London and the large towns, might not be much alleviated by providing large elementary boarding schools in the country. What is done with advantage for the inmates of numerous orphan schools and other asylums, might, one would think, be done for the public elementary

however dearly loved, are only subordinate elements in the household.

What may be set down to the advantage of boarding schools on the score of expense is, however, only urged for the sake of a fair consideration of the higher advantages which public boarding schools profess to give over education in the day school and home. I ought to say that, with the exception of technical boarding schools, in which I think numbers might be embarrassing, I am not in favour of small boarding schools. The qualifications, moral as well as mental, for the head master or mistress of a boarding school, are of a very high and rare kind. The responsibility is very great, and the supply of those fitted to undertake it can never be expected to overflow. I think, therefore, that mischief has been sometimes done by the revival of small and unimportant grammar schools. Consider what an influence might have been exercised on the future education of England had these numerous local endowments been combined in wise association with the enlightened opinion and enterprise of large districts and communities, such as our counties and cities, and care been taken to provide a graduated supply of efficient, but not superfluous public boarding schools through which the work of our greatest English educators might have reached every class, and carried fruits of the best culture into every village.

May I be pardoned if, as one of the surviving pupils of Dr. Arnold, I plead for room among the intermediate schools of England for the Rugbies of the future. Day schools alone cannot meet the requirements of a complete education, or make full preparation in youth for the after-life of a high-spirited as well as thoroughly instructed nation. It was Arnold who found in the English public

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scholar. Ten months of the year might be spent in roomy and detached country schools at no greater cost to the parent or his contributors than is incurred now. The health and decency of the parents' pinched abode would be some compensation for the temporary absence of his child, and in many cases arrangements could be made to make the holidays of the scholar coincide with an excursion of the family.

boarding school an instrument of extraordinary power for realising the higher aspirations of Christian civilisation. It was Arnold who, in the midst of his own work at Rugby, watching with anxious eye the social dangers and defects of England, pointed to the want of good secondary schools as one of the most serious dangers and deplorable defects. Arnold has been dead more than forty years. It is still true that we have no public system of secondary schools in England. It is still true that there is great danger in that defect. But it is not too late ; and there are many symptoms of that public attention being awakened, without which it is almost impossible to carry out public reforms or improvements.

If I am asked by what machinery or organisation this need (if I may be allowed to assume it granted) of public boarding-schools can be most expeditiously supplied, I would earnestly plead for the removal of a prejudice which keeps apart schools established by private enterprise, on commercial principles, from those founded by endowments. Endowments alone, considerable as these are in England, are quite inadequate to supply what is wanted. The dependence upon rates and taxes, already carried in the opinion of many to a dangerous and mischievous point in the case of elementary schools, is greatly to be deprecated above the confines of pauperism. If in the intermediate public schools the proprietary principle (subject to limitations both as to profit and appointment of teachers) were encouraged to co-operate with the public endowments, and connected with local and national honour, I have little doubt that ample funds would be forthcoming. The large boarding-schools connected with the Counties would, if self-supporting, be excellent stations for successive up-raising ladders by which the increase of the endowments ought to lift the deserving scholars from the elementary grade into the secondary, and similarly those of the secondary into the higher schools of the country. These "County schools," supported by the payments of their scholars, might, if sufficiently large and properly organised, become training

schools for the elementary teachers. It is at present an evil that those teachers are educated too much apart from the sons of that middle class to which, by their profession, they are entitled to consider themselves belonging. Those who might aspire to rise still higher in their profession should have opportunities, in Colleges connected with the Universities, to receive their share in the highest education of the country.

I should transgress the time allotted to me if I attempted to do more than thus indicate the position which I think ought to be given to large public boarding schools in intermediate education. I ought not, however, to pass over the difficulty which undoubtedly exists in providing public boarding schools. The religious responsibility transferred by the parent to the teacher in a day school is slight, and may be guarded by a conscience clause. But in a boarding school the responsibility cannot be so limited or suspended. Hence the tendency to the connection of boarding schools with distinct religious communities. When a pledge can be given that all shall be taught and trained according to definite formulas, those who belong to the same denomination will entrust their children to the schools which are in accord. But these denominational boarding schools are hardly public schools. Even the Church of England, wide and national as it is, seems to narrow its public character when it identifies itself with schools from which teachers belonging to other Christian bodies are excluded. On the other hand, boarding schools established with no religious initiative or profession, would in this country be so out of harmony with the convictions and sentiments of the people, as to be either unjust or useless, were they to demand public support, or occupy a public place in English education. On the ground of this religious difficulty there are many who think that the only public schools must be day schools, because in these alone, as they think, can the children of parents holding different religious convictions be taught together. In answer to this objection, I would rely on two great facts in our English national life. First, I would

point to the long recognition of Christianity as the national religion, not only within, but outside the definitions and boundaries, such as these may be, of the National Church as a distinct religious community. Secondly, I would call attention to the application, with marvellous success, of this common Christian religion to the requirements of education in the public schools of the higher class. Parents of all denominations send their sons to Eton, Harrow, and Rugby, expecting them to be taught and trained to be Christian gentlemen; what is there to prevent the same expectation from being held and gratified in public boarding schools for the middle class?

In advocating these public boarding schools, inexpensive, large, connected with the counties and great towns, combining proprietary and endowed capital, and therefore private and public enterprise, I have not expressed or conceived a wish to disparage the importance or usefulness either of day-schools or of boarding schools of a more exclusive character. I know well how wide the field is, and how necessary the application of various implements to bring it into cultivation. But I should acknowledge to a great disappointment—the disappointment of a wasted life—if England, in deciding to lift her own public education to at least as high a level in international comparison as she holds herself among the greater communities of mankind, should not place public boarding schools, after Arnold's idea, in the very front of her national programme.

DISCUSSION.

The CHAIRMAN (Rev. T. Morse) said he thought it was perfectly obvious that in any organization for secondary instruction in this country there must be both day schools and schools with facilities for boarding. It was quite obvious that there was a class of persons whose wants had been provided for, to a certain extent by county schools, but farmers,

small professional men, clergymen, and others, had no means provided for the instruction of their children, and had to send them away from home. It was only the populations in larger towns who could find instruction for their children in day schools. Whatever they considered were the relative advantages and disadvantages of day schools and boarding schools, there must be both. He did not altogether agree with the whole Paper in considering that the advantages of a boarding school were greater than those of a day school. His own opinion was, that he should prefer as a method of instruction the day school to the boarding school were that possible. He could understand a teacher having a desire for a boarding school, as he supposed that every enthusiastic teacher liked to impress his own idea upon his scholars. It was clear that in a boarding school the province of the teacher became much greater and the province of the parent much smaller. Still he felt they ought to look a great deal to home influence, and that they should look upon a school as merely supplementary to the home influence, and not wish it to supersede it. If they sent a boy to Eton, Harrow, or Rugby, they knew how, after one half, he came back to his home thoroughly impregnated with the spirit of the school, and he would say, "We do this, and that, that is not done, that is not the right thing," and he brings the criticism of the school to bear upon his home. He thought there were great moral dangers at large boarding schools which must be guarded against. The more they could educate children at home the greater chance they had of obtaining a healthy tone of character in the young people as they grew up. For his own part, he would be very glad if they could largely extend voluntary boarding arrangements in connection with their schools. He thought the tendency of a boarding school was always rather to increase the expense; it got to be the average expense of the average parents, and there was the danger of its going beyond. They wanted to protect the parents, and he supposed the boys and girls were more sensitive about little shortcomings

in the way of dress and pocket money, and other little things which might place them in an invidious position with regard to their fellows. In Wales it was largely coming into practice for parents to send their children to schools and make proper arrangements with some person whom they can trust to board them. Small farmers would sometimes send their children, and would also send provisions for them, and make arrangements with some person in the town, and the children would go home from Saturday to Monday. That would not do for the great public schools, the first grade schools, but they must look very largely to the needs of the people who wanted the lowest grade of secondary education. The people of the class whose incomes perhaps were not more than £200 or £300 a year, to whom every expense was a matter of great importance, ought to be considered. He thought they ought to look for greater liberty with respect to boarding schools, in order that parents might make arrangements with persons whom they knew, so that they might have more freedom as to expenditure. At Oxford they had introduced the practise of allowing students to enter either as entirely non-collegiate students, or what might be called semi-attached students, with perfect liberty of boarding out instead of having rooms in a college. That was an immense boon to poorer men. He had heard that some unattached students maintained themselves at the University for a total expenditure of about £50, and some for less. His own college of Baliol had set the example of giving very great facilities to young men, who, while belonging to the college, and having the advantage of attending the lectures, practically paid no college fees at all, because they boarded out, and provided for themselves in the town. Of course, they had to pay the large tuition fees, but nevertheless they succeeded in living at an extremely low rate. In all questions about schools they ought to bear in mind the matter of cost, and how parents could get the greatest facilities of providing for the education of their children ; and no doubt, some great schools

were doing their work very cheaply. Whatever might emerge from the present action, he thought they would nearly all wish to preserve very great diversity, and very great liberty. They would all welcome not only the establishment of county schools, and schools of a more specially denominational character, but they must also hope that a great many more would be established. He wished to put in a caveat with respect to the type of school of the future, for those parents who did not live in a town and could not send their children day by day into the school. In Wales they were able to do something, also in Scotland, and it was very important to bear in mind the needs of all parents, and not try to have too uniform a system, or a system which would tend rather to put the parent into the background, and the tone and spirit of the school into the foreground.

The Rev. R. D. SWALLOW said he had the honour of being the head master of one of the old grammar schools which had been restored, and he considered that those schools were doing very serviceable work in the country. He had a strong prejudice in favour of a big school, but there were boys for whom a big school was unsuitable: that class, for instance, whom he would venture to speak of under the name he had given them before, without any disparagement, and with the greatest possible affection for many of them—the class whom they must classify as fools, who could do well in a small school, but were thrown in the background when they got into a large school. There were many also who objected to the "supervision" of the preparatory school, and who would rather have their sons prepared for the larger public school at the grammar school. With regard to the great moral question which had been fixing the minds of so many of them at the present time—he meant the great social purity question—which last week had been brought before their notice in the pages of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, he was under the impression that the social purity was greater in a small school, where the influence of the head master must neces-

sarily be much more closely felt by all the boys in the school, than in a large school where many a boy was left to himself, and where one bad boy might do incalculable mischief. He would rather pin his faith to the excellent remarks of the Chairman, that there was room for the small endowed schools, and room also for those large public schools, but he always had contended that the term "public schools" ought not to be applied to a school simply because of the endowment, or its past history, but because of the present character of the school, whether it was large or small.

Sir T. DYKE ACLAND said he had seen something of small and large schools, and heard a great deal more of them. He had had to send two little boys to school, and he had preferred a small school, but that was not satisfactory. He then went to one of the modern foundations, a new foundation made by a public-spirited man, who had unfortunately lost his whole property in consequence of his desire, perhaps not on the wisest lines, to do what was for the good of the church to which he belonged, and the nation. He went to this school, and according to his habit looked thoroughly into things; he walked round the whole of the school and looked into every hole and corner. He could not in the presence of that audience say what he asked, but he made certain enquiries, and he was informed by the warden that, rather than trust to mechanical arrangements, he depended on a high tone of opinion in his prefects, and if he could not do that he would prefer to shut the whole place up. He believed that hundreds of boys left school comparatively pure, owing to the public spirit of the school, which set its face against companionship of a kind which was worse than the impurity which was open and above board. His friend, Bishop Temple, considered that there could not be an efficient first grade school with less than 150 boys, and he said they must have five or six masters, each not having more than twenty-five or thirty boys. That was a practical way of looking at the thing, and he very much doubted whether

it was possible to have a thoroughly good public school with forty or fifty boys. They might have a very good little school of about ten in a family, where the lady looked after the boys when they were young; but when boys got to thirteen or eighteen he did not believe in small schools, and did not believe they could get much practical teaching unless there were five, six, or seven masters, and then they had to find the money to pay them. In the class just above the labourers there was a want of secondary education, and that had been considered by the Schools Enquiry Commission, and there never was a more practical work than that which had been done by that Commission, but they had not yet solved the question of education for the class he had referred to. Speaking as a farmer and a landowner, he did not know what the farmers were to do. If they happened to be within a mile or so of a railway station they might send their boys by train, or they might have a donkey or a pony if they lived within four miles of a town they might send their boys on; but, practically, they must send them to boarding schools. He thought there had been a mistake made in endeavouring to establish too many boarding schools. People who live in the country wanted a good boarding school, but one or two boarding schools in a county was as much as could be supported. In boarding schools they must have their price; they must have good food, with meat once a day at least; that meant money, and they could not do it, as a matter of business, much under £40 a year. One of the most important subjects brought before the Schools Enquiry Commission, was the difficulty about getting that kind of education, and it had been suggested that it might be got over, not by applying endowments to new schools, but by converting the endowments into the form of exhibitions and scholarships, with permission to boys to go wherever they pleased for their school.

Lord FORTESCUE said that the expense at a county school with which he was connected was about thirty

guineas a year, and they had accommodation for about 220 boys. It began with three more than twenty-five years ago, but they had been very much damaged by the foundation or revival of several schools which, although they did not flourish themselves, had done just enough to prevent any other school flourishing. He had some recollection of being a boy in a small school, and he knew how enormously the influence of one bad boy was intensified in a small school where that boy might be the leading spirit, and there could be no public opinion to tell against him, especially if he were the biggest also.

Anything worse than a small school with a bad tone in it could hardly be conceived. In a large school there was always a reasonable probability that a certain proportion would be found capable of standing up against a bad tone; but really in a small school there might be hardly any. Small schools might do very well for very little boys, though some imperfection in teaching would be almost inevitable, owing to the want of a division of labour. His conviction was that a large school with something like 150 boys was far more religious and moral, as a rule, and was also preferable educationally. He did not like to believe that they would find anywhere in England 150 boys, none of them having the manliness to stand up against evil. But in a school of twenty to thirty, or ten or twelve, they might have evil so triumphant, that, in spite of the influence of the head master, a boy who went to it would be exposed to temptations and a kind of influence from which at an early age nothing but exceptionally strong religious principle could save him. With all the different religious views, and religious idiosyncrasies of persons in this country, they would never get to one uniform religious standard in education, and he did not think it was desirable they should. One of the valuable properties of the English character was that they were wonderfully independent, and determined to work out their different systems upon what they believed to be proper principles. Let those who were for an unsectarian

Christianity take their line, and those who were for secular schools take their line, but they should not run down others. Let Canon Woodward and Canon Holland, let the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, and the rest of them, go on all in their own way with Church education, and Prebendary Brereton and his humble self in their way. There was room for them all, and they should not try to damage or injure one another.

The Rev. R. D. SWALLOW explained, that when he spoke of small schools, he meant schools like his own, having between 80 and 100 boys in them. He thought that a school having about 100 boys had an advantage, and that larger schools like Eton, Harrow, and others, were comparatively overgrown.

Archdeacon EMERY said that Prebendary Brereton had given them an interesting and valuable paper, with many points of which he agreed, but in many others he certainly disagreed. He could not help thinking that in anxiety to forward what was a most desirable and necessary thing for the country, namely, boarding schools, the Prebendary had taken too narrow a view of the wants of the country, on which the remarks of the Chairman were very valuable. By all means, those who were anxious for education should do what they could to meet the varied wants of the country, and he believed boarding schools of various sizes, with various fees, would meet some of them. On the question whether it was best to have boarding schools or day schools, he thought what the Chairman had said was perfectly true. They must have boarding schools, but on the whole, after a great deal of consideration, he thought day schools were an absolute necessity. He himself was brought up at a great day school, which began with three or four hundred boys and went up to eight or nine hundred, with two or three hundred wanting to come in. He meant the City of London School. What were they to do in populous places? Were all boys to be taken from their families and sent to boarding schools? That was an impossibility. One great difficulty was the expense. There were a great

number of parents who wanted to give their children a good education, but could not bear large expense. Boys of ten or twelve, or even less, might be sent to the great day schools in London, and in those schools they got as good, as substantial, and enlarged an education as could be got in boarding schools. So far as education was concerned, morally as well as intellectually, some of our best men came from day schools as well as from boarding schools, and they were fighting one another in the race of life very equally. He might point to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and to many eminent men who had been educated in day schools; therefore, he said, there was room for them both; but if they were thoroughly to meet the wants of the large populations of the country they must go on the lines of increasing efficient day schools. As to what had been done in the Universities, he had had the honour of reading a Paper before the British Association years ago at Cambridge, and he ventured to say they had introduced something like the very system he then advocated, and which had been mentioned by the Chairman. Boarding schools were in many cases extremely expensive, and they did want parents to feel there was a great value in home influence. There were large numbers of parents who could well supplement the day school education, morally and intellectually, for the boys, who could get their education thus supplemented and carried out as well as in boarding schools.

The Rev. Canon DANIEL said the question was not one as between day schools and boarding schools, but it was what was best under the circumstances. What was a farmer to do with his children, and what were professional parents to do who lived in small towns? Great cities were not wholly satisfactory as places of education, as the environments of the children were unhappy, but most of them got good day school education. What they had to do was to consider what was best under the circumstances. The only chance the parents had was to send the children to a

large boarding school. A small boarding school usually meant a low standard of attainments, an imperfect system of classification, and the impossibility of employing specialists. If they avoided those disadvantages they were obliged to charge fees which the parents were unable to pay. Small schools must mean either inefficiency or great expense. It was a hard thing to force upon parents inefficient education, and it was useless to force upon them an expensive one which they could not pay for. There must be established in great centres throughout the country large boarding schools, and the only question was of what type should they be. For his own part he should prefer large boarding schools giving a distinctive religious education. In the absence of such schools, he would be glad to see schools of the type proposed by Prebendary Brereton, where religious education was given. Although the religious element was not quite so distinctive as he could wish, he would prefer schools of that class to schools where no religious education whatever was given.

Mr. WELLS, as the master of a private boarding school, said that he thought schools of that kind had a great advantage with regard to the care and purity of pupils. In a small school, where the husband and the wife were always on duty, it must be notorious that the great assistant master of the school was the master's wife. If the wife and husband were working honestly and thoroughly for the welfare of the children, there could be no condition in which the children would have better care.

(The section adjourned until 2 P.M.)

On resuming, the chair was taken by the Rev. Canon DANIEL.

ORGANIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

By Miss DOROTHEA BEALE,
Principal of the Cheltenham Ladies' College.

IT is with much hesitation that I venture to read a paper that I have had no leisure to write. The subject of school organization, too, is so large that one knows not what to select for a twenty-minutes' paper, and the circumstances of schools are so varied, that what is good for one is unsuitable for another. All I can do is to speak of what we aim at in my own school, omitting as far as possible those details with which I have dealt in previous papers. I have explained therein the machinery of the College—how it is divided into three departments, with a Head-mistress over each. I can give this paper and one upon a curriculum, to any specially interested. To-day I shall speak of *organization* proper, as distinguished from *machinisation*, and dwell, in the brief time at my disposal, on the means employed in the moral training.

The essential difference between solitary study and *vivâ voce* teaching is this: that in the latter case the living personality is brought to bear upon the learner, and the means are adapted to the individual. In a good school, a child will not only be disciplined by external rules, his energies will be quickened, and the power of personal influence increased and multiplied. Concurrent intellectual and moral forces will be brought to bear, and it is upon the right use and the proper organization of these forces that the excellence of a school mainly depends.

The great danger is lest intellectual vigour be destroyed by instruction, and the moral energies, by the substitution of another will for the inward guide—the law for the spirit—the problem is how to organize the forces at command, how to provide such food and exercise, intellectual and moral, as may develop to vigorous health all

that is good. Once doctors and educators set themselves chiefly to purge away evil—now we have got hold of the essentially Christian thought—that it is "more life and fuller that we want," one need not fear for the vigorous every draught, nor those destructive agencies which fasten upon enfeebled tissue. People have learned for their boys, and are learning for their girls, that the main object of education is to invigorate, and that one cannot invigorate by shutting up the young in a narrow sphere; that it is better (as Greek fables teach us) to send them out to encounter danger than to have them weak. The mediæval thought of discipline has been superseded by the modern idea of liberty, as the great means of education, and we are now more apt to lose sight of the complementary truth, that the young need shelter and protection, and thoughtful, watchful care, during the period of growth. The hardening doctrine, pushed to extremes, has been the death of many a child, and no sanitary bootmaker supplies such shoes as were recommended by Locke.

So I fear that we may now be too forgetful of the great need of individual care in the training of character—the immature mind and heart need this no less than the immature body. It is sometimes imagined that in a large school there cannot be this care, but it may, and ought to be more complete than is possible generally under other conditions, because the influences brought to bear are more various, and can therefore be better adapted to individual needs. The only requisite is unity of purpose, and proper organization. Now there can be organization only if we regard the school as an organism; as in some sense the embodiment of living principles, working harmoniously for one common end. There must be amongst those working together a common understanding regarding the ends to be attained; a power of united action; a common life. The same external results may be produced with less expense of energy by machinery than by organizing; we have to be careful lest natural slothfulness make us substitute a system of drill for a system of education. We must keep

before us the final cause of a school, that though its orderly working is essential to its efficiency, it does not exist for its own sake, but only for the good of the individuals of which it is composed, and the object is, through temporary dependence to render them fit for independence. And thus the real efficiency of a school is tested, not chiefly by its working, but by the lives of those who have proceeded from it.

As the school is an organism, so are the individual pupils. They have a life of their own, and therefore our work is not like that of the sculptor, who works towards a preconceived ideal; all we have to do is to nourish and invigorate and set free the inward forces, and then the organic life will develop according to the laws of its being, under the guidance of the All-comprehending Wisdom, its sustainer as well as its source. So the educator must not be a doctrinaire forcing his views: he has to watch over the processes of growth. The father of Pascal, who sought to prevent his learning mathematics, was acting in the most direct opposition to all true principles of education. The parent who says, "I wish my child to be a musician or a scholar"—instead of seeking to develop the gifts bestowed—is trying to substitute his own will for God's. We may have a general idea, which will become clearer to us as the child develops, but it is not ours to have an ideal for a child; and many a life has been marred because a parent has usurped an authority not his.

Thus as regards the individual then, we are not to formulate, but to educate, and the life will give form. And as regards the school through which we educate, we must have a true conception of its final cause. It is like a nursery-garden, to use Fröbel's simile. It exists that it may bring to bear upon each individual who enters it, such forces and influences as will tend best to develop the life of each, according to its special type and individual peculiarity. The school is well organized when the *collective* forces—physical, intellectual, moral—of teachers and tutors, and heads of houses, and companions, are so *combined* that they

act together for this development of the whole man. And the joy of a teacher's life is to see the mind expanding, the character developing, to forms ever new and varied, as the flowers in sunlight ; to trace in this varied development the inward force, the working of a Divine power, with which it is his happiness to co-operate.

The chief *means* of organization, *i.e.*, of developing the life of a school, are—

1. School economy.
2. The teacher's influence.
3. Intellectual culture.
4. Companionship.
5. Gymnastic.

(1) *School economy* must differ greatly in different schools. I can only here describe what we have found well adapted in our own college. The end being the right development of the character of each pupil entrusted to us, all other things are subordinated to this, and treated as means for this end. I have elsewhere spoken of the division of our college into departments, each with its own head-mistress, and of each division into classes of from twenty-five to thirty children. Over each class there are two teachers. The senior takes the Scripture and one or more of the Kultur-Studien or Humanities, sharing also in the other work. The junior assists in the general management and teaching. We prefer the class system to subject-teaching. Specialists may have a more complete knowledge of the subject, but having a less intimate knowledge of the child, they are less able to adapt themselves to her needs, and often therefore obtain less good intellectual results even. Still there is a good deal of special teaching even in lower classes for foreign languages, science, music, drawing, and singing. One of the class-teachers is usually present at special classes in junior divisions, and gives perhaps a *vivâ voce* after. She feels instinctively (as she knows her children) whether they understand the lesson, and is able to speak to the specialist if his or her lessons are unsuitable. She has to see that no specialist sets more

than her children can do. If anything goes wrong, it is she who is blamed by the Head-mistress of her division. Should a difference of opinion arise, the matter is laid before the Head-mistress, and ultimately, if necessary, can be brought to the Principal. In higher classes the teaching is more by specialists, and increasingly so, as pupils become more independent; in the highest classes, *e.g.*, in those for the Intermediate and final B.A. examinations, entirely so. The close supervision which is good for juniors is unnecessary and undesirable for seniors, though thoughtful observation, and help in self-discipline, should never be altogether omitted. It is the duty of the class teacher to arrange the work of all her pupils. She prepares a time-table, not only for college but for home lessons, and informs the specialists of the time assigned for preparation. The day pupils' time-tables of home work have to be signed by the parent. There is a printed notice on each card, requiring them to write to the principal if the work set is found too much or too little. Of course there is a general curriculum for each class, but perhaps there is not one single child for whom some deviation has not been thought good, and entered on her time-table.

Thus each child is placed under the immediate care of one teacher, whose duty it is to watch over her character, and to provide for her moral training, chiefly through the instruction and discipline of college; to refer all matters of difficulty to her head mistress; to consult, if necessary, with parents and House-mistresses. To her are brought by the specialists, reports of the work. Each week the list of marks is read by the Head-mistress of the division, in the presence of the teacher and the class. She administers such advice, admonition, and encouragement as seem to her needed. No conduct marks of any sort are given. There is no taking of places in class, no prizes are given, except once a year, for attaining a certain proportion of marks. Thus there is no competition, and a class may have no prizes, or a great many. We try to keep habitually before the child that the best may be bad, and the

worst in the class good ; the only thing we desire is that the work should be done as well as we think the child could do it. There are no punishments. If a lesson has not been properly prepared, the pupil has to come in the afternoon and do it, but it is never increased in length. Those who are persistently disobedient or idle, or do not yield to the influences brought to bear, have to leave. It is very rarely that a child is unmanageable, since she learns to feel that her teacher cares for her real good ; and the teacher has not her own influence and power only to rely on, but those of other teachers, of pupils who have learned to desire to help others, of parents and House-mistresses, and Heads of Departments, and ultimately of the Principal. The House-mistresses are constantly in communication too with the college teachers and Heads of Departments. They write at college, in conjunction with the class teachers, the terminal reports of progress.

So far from finding parents troublesome, we have to persuade them that we are anxious they should speak or write ; that we *wish* to be told about anything that seems to them unsatisfactory, and we freely speak to them about things requiring alteration at home. It may be suggested that a class teacher may be inexperienced or incompetent. We never give the charge of a class to one who has not served an apprenticeship as junior, sometimes for several years. Besides, as the classes are habitually in the large room, which they leave only for lecture lessons, and all the rooms have glass doors, the Head-mistress would soon observe anything wrong. She is frequently present at lessons. She sees the exercise and note-books, and the terminal examination papers. Teachers are usually glad of this supervision, and of suggestions from their Heads : it forms part of their training. Gradually, as students rise in the college, we relax the strictness of rules, and endeavour to bring in more and more the sense of responsibility towards others. Especially do we impress on all, but particularly on the seniors, that it is their duty to prevent wrong as far as it is possible : 1, by

speaking to the offender; 2, by bringing public opinion to bear; 3, in a last resort, by giving fair warning, and then, if necessary, speaking to a teacher. This is almost never necessary, and is a very different thing from the cowardly tell-taling which is done slyly. It requires much courage, and need almost never be resorted to.

(2) *Personal influence.*—It is about as difficult to define personal influence as to define life. It acts through the personality of the teacher, and yet it is not given out from the teacher; in fact, one who feeds the moral nature of a child from her own life makes that child a sickly parasite, unable to live apart from her. It requires no great gifts or great excellencies to draw after us a crowd of weaker natures. We need only flatter their vanity—move them by the lower part of their character. If we would help any truly to live and grow, we must bring them into the sunlight, not the candlelight. If we wish their ideals to be high, we must look up ourselves, not down to them, for admiration.

"I looked on Beatrice, and she on Heaven."

A teacher who says, my pupils will do anything to please me, has pronounced her own condemnation; children must learn to do their duty to those whom they do not like, there must be recognition of functional authority, or there can be no right organic life, but all will be disorder.

There is, however, a right use of personal influence. We are not to lead an isolated life; as the analogy of material things suggests, virtue should go forth of us. It will never be under-valued as a means of God's appointment by those who believe in the Christian church. But a healthy influence is not one that isolates, it is one that quickens the nature, so as to make it more actively receptive of all that is good and true and noble in any other. Do you know the feeling of springtide, when the whole atmosphere seems to breathe life into one's veins? What is it that makes us feel this? It is, I think, the sympathetic life in quickening nature, no plant feeds any other, but each helps to stir those living forces, to quicken the life of all. Such is the moral

atmosphere of a healthy school. Each child is made more alive to all the influences breathing through the souls of teachers and companions; more able to receive the teaching of those who have passed out of sight, but who live and speak to us through the power of the poet, or the historian, or the philologist. A right personal influence does not absorb the energies, it quickens the sympathies with all.

(3) *Culture.*—I have put culture next, because it is not very different from personal influence. It is chiefly the bringing to bear on our pupils of the great personalities, the great thoughts, the great feelings which have quickened the life of the world. There is a teaching which provides for children only the outside husks; it is a miserable thing to be ever occupied with the mere clothing of thought. If they are properly taught, their lessons are a pleasure to them. Of course there is hard labour to get all the buried treasures, there must be the learning of grammatical forms, the working out of results in mathematics; but the labour is sweetened by hope, and ennobled by the sense of duty, and sustained by faith.

It is a miserable thing for children to learn to think that knowledge and wisdom is to be sought only for the material good it will bring: a miserable thing for teachers to assume that the love of gain is stronger than the love of ideal good; and it seems to me that there is no more palpable lie going about in the world as current coin, than the assertion that base motives are stronger than the noble ones; it is contradicted by every page of history, as well as by our own daily experience. Those who observe life, must surely see that the instincts; the selfish motives resting upon no intellectual basis, are feeble indeed compared with the distinctively human forces, and that the moral powers are supremely strong.

To these we must appeal, if we would make our children powers for good; we must show them by example as well as precept, that we care nothing for mere success. I have elsewhere spoken of the great evil of the modern slave-

trade in so-called scholarships, of the buying up of clever children by rival schools. I can only allude to it here as demoralising to all concerned.

Those who know what girls' schools were in old times will not condemn examinations; but the responsibility of examining bodies is great, and unhappily many teachers feel that some of those most in vogue are almost prohibitive of true culture. I earnestly hope that through the Teachers' Guilds, or some other means, examinations, especially those of the London University, will be brought into greater harmony with the judgment of those who desire real education.

Companionship.—This is a most fruitful source of good. One of the vulgar errors that we sometimes act on is this, that evil is stronger than good. Nothing is clearer to those who observe, than this, that evil is transitory, evanescent; that good influences work slowly, but *surely;* that evil is by its very nature self-destructive. A friendship which is founded on selfishness cannot last, whereas a good friendship deepens and grows. We know in the world the marvellous far-reaching leavening power of one noble life; some of us can recall such; whilst hundreds of baser lives die in the outer darkness, the good lives on, and grows up in the sunlight, and becomes a great tree, and the fowls of the air lodge in the branches of it. So in a school, if it is at all what it ought to be, what it generally is, the good influences are lasting, are prevailing; they are the organizing, the active power, the actual (to use Hinton's word), whilst the others are the negative, the passive, through reaction against which our personality must be developed. It is ours to keep the channels of life free, we must have no stagnation; and that this may be so, I hold strongly with Dr. Arnold that we must weed out all who by laziness or mere passiveness hinder true progress; for their own sake, as well as that of others, they must go to some place where there is less companionship, or more drill, some moral sanatorium; for if they are not sharing in and quickening the life of the school, they are hindering it, and introducing

disease. It ought to be understood that children are not necessarily expelled, when we advise and require parents to place them elsewhere.

Gymnastics.—It is no longer necessary to insist on the need for bodily training—healthy outdoor exercise for girls as well as boys; the influence of the body on the mind has been sufficiently dwelt upon of late, that of the mind on the body has been too much overlooked. There is a practical materialism, a Lucretianism, which regards thought as a function of the brain, the moral nature as the product of the organization. There is doubtless action and reaction, but surely the Platonic view is the right one—it is confirmed by our daily experience—that the inward life fashions the outward.

People sometimes speak as if they had to choose between health *or* intellectual attainments, *or* a life of strenuous moral vigour, and that, though they see health daily ruined through a low moral ideal; women weak, languid, hysterical, who would become vigorous and healthy if roused to forget self and live for others. We see it daily proved, that he who seeks his life loses it; those whose moral standard is high will not, through vanity, or carelessness, or indolence, trifle with health. Already we have a considerable mass of statistics to show that good education contributes to bodily health, and I trust that the gathering of more will be one of the functions of the Teachers' Guild.

It is quite impossible that teachers in day schools should undertake, as some doctors have suggested, the registering of weights and measures, the study of scientific dietaries, &c.; but there might be sanitarians attached to schools, who should make these things a special study. Such, to a great extent, have our Heads of Boarding-houses become, under the direction of our Medical Referee and our Boarding-House Committee. These ladies are *never* College teachers. Not only are they desirous to do their duty by the children, but they are paid by results, since, unlike doctors, they lose their patients when they fail to keep

them in health. Great is the emulation amongst the Heads of our ten Houses, to show the fairest bill of health, and we find the average absence from ordinary ailments is less than three days a year. It were much to be desired that there were a higher idea of health. That is not health for man, in which his typical superiority is effaced ; the physical organism exists not for its own sake, but for sustaining the man himself, during the process of developing the powers by which alone, and not by physical superiority, man has secured and maintained his supremacy over nature, replenished the earth and subdued it. There can only be a perfectly healthy man in the fullest sense when there is harmonious development of the whole being, the intellect devoted to the highest ends of existence. One seems uttering truisms, yet one does meet those who talk and act as though the supremacy of the moral being were not the first requisite for perfect health, as though the regulation of the emotional nature, by the culture of the power of thought, were not the great safeguard for the harmonious action of physical organism.

We need then a better organization of all the forces brought to bear on the training of the young.

THE CURRICULUM OF A SCHOOL FOR GIRLS OF THE FIRST GRADE.

By Mrs. BRYANT, D.Sc.

MY object in writing this paper is to give an account of an ideal curriculum for a girls' school of, as we call it in England, the first grade. A school of the first grade is one in which the pupils are allowed to remain till they reach the age of nineteen, and in which, therefore, were all things just what they ought to be, the work would be arranged on the supposition that the great majority of the pupils did remain till they reached that age, or attained a standard

reached by the average at that age. In actual fact, only a proportion of the pupils in our first grade schools rise to the dignity of sixth-form girls ; and to some extent this is likely to be always the case, since some are by nature not capable enough for the best school work, and some there will always be whose objects in life would be better carried out by leaving early. Thus, it is tolerably evident that the ideal state of things is not in this case even the limit of the real state exactly, and, without giving reasons, it will further be evident that the natural discrepancy of the two is very highly accentuated just at present. Besides this mixture of girls with what we will call the normal school aim and those with an aim below the normal, there is another element of discrepancy in the presence of girls with an aim above that normal in the prospect of a University career. In a school such as we have in view, these form a very important class, and one whose case should meet, as it deserves, with careful consideration in framing a scheme of studies. I will go further than this, however, and suggest that, up to a certain point, this class is typical of the other class with which it is mixed. After all, every man and every woman should be, more or less, a student throughout life, and school is the preparation for this after-studentship. Thus, though the conditions of studentship are very different in the two classes of cases, the preparation is probably not so different but that the prospect of special opportunities for study in the one class may be a positive advantage to the other, and moreover that the wider diffusion of interest which is profitable for the other may be the best possible counterbalance to the impending effects of after-specialisation in the first.

I have touched thus briefly on this diversity of conditions as regards the final aim of girls in a higher school, for the purpose of indicating slightly some of the complexities inherent in the real problem of a school curriculum. The principle, however, which I would lay down in reference to difficulties arising out of this complexity is, that individual cases should be considered as far as possible ; but that,

since there must be some such tacit assumption in deciding on the general character of the proposed curriculum, the assumption may fairly be made that we are dealing with normal girls in reasonably good health, of average abilities, intending to avail themselves of the complete school course, and not unlikely to continue their studies, more or less, in after-life.

Before we can decide in a scientific manner what it is that we should teach these girls, we must first decide upon the aim we propose in teaching them at all. Opinion is divergent enough on this primary question still. I have read careful arguments designed to show that since a woman's normal life is likely to be full of miscellaneous occupations, which make it very difficult for her to pursue the study of any subject requiring hard and sustained thinking, it is therefore better to prepare her for the successful after-study of the so-called lighter subjects of literature history, &c. Now it may be questioned whether history especially is a light subject, when *studied*, though it certainly is when merely *read*. *Information* concerning those things which have been done, and those books which have been written, is one kind of culture, but *thought* concerning them is another and a very different kind. It seems to me, indeed, that few inflictions are harder to bear than the society of a really well-informed person whose thinking capacity is relatively insignificant. Capable women who have not been educated, in my sense of the word, are very apt to become such mere well-informed persons ; and I contend that one object of our improved school education should be to prevent this result. Just because a woman's after-education of herself is apt to be discontinuous, and carried on generally under conditions which are unfavourable to the precision and persistency of genuine thinking—just for that very reason should her school education be such as to bring out those qualities in full force. School is the *preparation* for life, it is true, but no less should it be remembered that school education ought to be the *complement* of after-education in life. If a woman's life is likely

to be such as shall give her but little opportunity of intellectual development in any one direction, then there is the more reason for securing these opportunities in school; and this must logically be the opinion of all who take it that education makes the highest cultivation of the individual, as such, its end, and not merely the partial cultivation of the individual as a means to the ends of other individuals, or even of society at large. If, however, any of us still believe that the boy or the girl is to be educated (even in the ideal state of things) just for the purpose of filling some social niche in the most convenient and economical way, then to those the stupidity of teaching most boys, as well as most girls, either Latin or more than the minimum of mathematics, may fairly be considered as an established point. But most of us at the bottom, I think, believe ourselves to have good reasons for holding that even the social niches will be better filled if we educate the individual not merely for them, but for himself, in that sense of himself as the perfect individual which he may become.

If you agree with me so far, you will readily admit that the curriculum of a girls' school must be determined by careful consideration of the conditions on which the moral, intellectual, and physical development of a normal human being depends. I use the term "human being" here instead of girl, because I am unable to discover that the general conditions of development are particular for girls, though I am ready to admit freely that the details of arranging work may be. But this latter is not our subject to-day.

We are perhaps prone to talk about this moral, intellectual, and physical development somewhat as if human nature were a compound of three independent factors, and education scarcely even a compound, but only a sum, of three independent disciplines. But already our knowledge of the conditions is enough to show us that any such view is thoroughly unscientific. The three disciplines are intimately correlated step by step—so intimately that the three progresses in development at which they aim must

of necessity go hand in hand. This doctrine most of us will assent to at once, but only one class out of three really lives up to it as yet. I mean the physiological educationists, who tell us, and with much truth, that physiological conditions are all; that the truth of all truth is physiology, and the real nature of all development is physical development. The intellectual educationists, and the moral educationists, have not as a rule gone quite so far, but they might very well if they liked. In truth we can regard the matter under whichever aspect we please; and, to make an assertion which I am sorry to say I have not time to argue, we should, I believe, arrive at the same conclusions as regards curriculum in all cases. But as we are teachers, and work by moral means, I rather incline to think that we shall reach our end more certainly and more readily if we seek for it mainly as a moral end. Nevertheless we must be careful not to fall into mere one-sidedness; and to avoid this I propose a simple rule, *i.e.*, when either the intellectual or the physical results are unsatisfactory, be very sure that you are making a mistake.

I will now ask you to suppose that I have established one main point, though I have only indicated the line of thought which to my mind establishes it. This point is, that *the curriculum of a school should be primarily determined by consideration of a moral end, i.e., the formation of character.* One practical conclusion emerges at once. Industry, persistence in effort, patience in awaiting results—these are first-class moral characteristics; and for their cultivation in study the harder logical subjects are necessary. Of this more presently. We must now attempt to make some list of the moral qualities which the successful pursuit of study calls for, and which study therefore cultivates.

It may seem very simple to say that *Activity* in general, is one of these, both on the side of knowing and on that of doing; but activity implies a good deal,—*i.e.*, on the one hand alertness of attention in dealing with new material for thought, and, on the other hand, readiness to

think, to will, to act, towards the exterior. But, besides activity, we require a capacity for sustained effort, or *Persistence* in activity ; and, besides persistence, we require *Patience,* or the capacity for sustaining, not effort, so much as interest, or the strain of waiting attention for a postponed result. Both patience and persistence imply the control of activity by activity, the higher by the lower. The further development of such control is essential to the formation of the genuine industrious character, in which all developments of activity are possible as in orderly subservience to some primary aim. This is self-control, and self-control, as control, is a moral habit, which may be formed in the pursuit of intellectual as well as other ends, and of which industry therefore is one department, so far as industry is not mere general activity. But self-control implies activity controlling as well as activity controlled. If the activities controlled are well disciplined, we have the steady industrious character in full force. If, however, the activity controlling is uncertain and obscure, the character will lack that definiteness and energy of initiative, which is the moral aspect of originality. Now, this *Energy of initiative,* which is something different from activity or industry, and exists in very various ratios to these according to the character, is the basis of the type of mind whose thought is fresh and non-mechanical, not determined, that is, by unreflecting use and wont ; while, on the practical side, the same type appears in a readiness to devise new methods, not as new, but as fresh, as emerging from the mind of the deviser with the stamp of his individuality upon them.

The characteristics, then, which we have to keep in view may be summed up thus :

(1) Activity in attending, in thinking, in acting.
(2) Persistence in sustaining effort.
(3) Patience in sustaining passive attention.
(4) Self-control and especially industry.
(5) Energy of initiative.

I do not pretend to say that this catalogue is either exhaus-

tive or really scientific, but a certain practical accuracy may fairly be claimed for it. The next thing we have to attempt is the classification of subjects, and the discovery in each case of the moral aptitudes which a taste for them implies, and which, therefore, their culture tends to cultivate.

If for the present we omit consideration of the Moral Sciences, on account of their greater complexity, which makes it impossible to deal adequately with their usefulness from this point of view, six main groups may be distinguished.

(1) Language.
(2) Mathematics and Logic.
(3) Natural Science.
(4) Experimental Science.
(5) History.
(6) Art, executive and appreciative.

Language requires and cultivates large powers of downright industry. It cultivates initiative also, if taught as the genuine expression of thinking; and this applies especially to study of the native language, for to make a child talk is to make him do something of and from himself. But it must, I think, be admitted that, as a rule, the efforts of patience and persistence, the struggles of industry and the labours of origination need not be of a very exalted type. Hence it is that a first-rate teacher can get so much, and a third-rate teacher so little, out of language as a subject. It need not happen at all, but it is likely enough to happen much too often, that a child should learn a language at the minimum expense of genuine painstaking and consequent gain of faculty.

In Mathematics, activity of thinking and persistence in sustained effort have their best chance, and in no other subject is the cultivation of initiative so certain and so continuous. The great advantage of mathematical training consists in the fact that if the subject is studied in an unimproving way, an *evident* failure in knowledge as well as in faculty is the consequence. Without active thought,

persistent effort, and origination, the secret of mathematics cannot be discovered. On the other hand, it does not require the waiting power of patience, and makes much less demand on voluntary industry than language makes.

Science, while it calls upon the school-girl for a less prodigious industry than language, and a less persistent activity and continuous origination of directing ideas than mathematics, demands an amount of patient waiting on Nature, than which no finer cultivation of patience can be imagined. The quantity of this moral quality implied in the work of the advanced student who is pursuing genuine investigation may well elicit the admiration of those whose gift of patience is less considerable or less developed.

As there appears to be no peculiarity in the case of History, I pass on to Art, and, touching lightly at this point on the much-neglected appreciative culture since it is not of considerable direct moral import, let us consider the executive department, in Drawing and Music more especially. Here we have self-control in full demand: effort must be sustained and repeated, accuracy and precision must be acquired, obedience to a standard of execution is insisted on. Self-control in a variety of ways such as these is the key to all success in Art; and such success is a guarantee of growth in self-control. But Art may be studied mechanically: on this side of education there is no sure safeguard against partial degeneration into routine.

It is therefore evident that neither in Language alone, *nor* Mathematics alone, *nor* Science alone, *nor* Art alone, is a sound training from the moral point of view to be certainly found; but that in Language, *and* Mathematics, *and* Science, *and* Art, such a training can most certainly be found. These should, then, be considered as the four great pillars of an educational curriculum.

They are not the whole. Considerations of intellectual culture more especially suggest three more groups; and, as time is short, I will content myself with making a statement without argument. These groups are:—

(1.) Descriptive Science, for the sake of interest in and

knowledge of the subject, e.g., Elementary Physies, Elementary Physiology, or Laws of Health, Physieal Geography, &c.

(2.) History, with a view to cultivation (*a*) of the historieal imagination, (*b*) of thinking on social subjects, (*c*) actual knowledge.

(3.) Appreciative or Critieal Art, with a view to eultivation of the æsthetie taste and the æsthetie judgment. Under this head we place Literature as a critieal study of literary masterpieces, and a similar treatment, not much in vogue as yet, of Musical Literature in relation to musieal theory, and of Painting, Sculpture, and Architeeture. This department is so large that only a partial treatment of it is possible in a school, and the kind of treatment that seems most promising is the eontinuous study of Literature in great literary works, with oeeasional eourses of lectures or lessons in the other departments. There is not, so far as I can see, any reason for seleeting the Literary Art rather than the others for the place of honour, except that it appeals to a larger elass of persons. Readers of literature being more numerous than hearers of musie or lookers at pietures, it is well that so large a class should have speeial attention paid to a preliminary training in literary taste. But it should be remembered that it is very important to give at least the start to the other two eultures of the same kind.

We have arrived then at a first sketeh of the ideal curriculum, as comprising seven essential groups of subjects. With great diffidence I suggest an eighth, though only for the highest class if carried to any extent, and only to a small extent for even its members. I mean some one or two out of the group of social and moral seienees, in the study of whieh may be found some slight preliminary training in a way of thinking, not required for Language, Mathematies, or Natural Science indeed, but imperatively required for the settlement of life-problems that come to all in after years. The introduction of Political Eeonomy

is a step in this direction, and I think a second step might very well be taken.

On the stages in the school course at which these various subjects should be introduced much might be said, but this topic I must be content to leave as outside the limits of my paper. Its enquiry has been into the sum total of studies, not into their order. The result, as you will have observed, is the determination of a curriculum which, if it be a correct determination at all, applies to boys no less than to girls, and in great measure to second-grade as well as to first-grade schools.

DISCUSSION.

Professor DARMESTETER (one of the French Delegates) speaking in French, described the movement for the higher education of women in France resulting in the establishment of *colléges* or *lycées* for girls in 1880, and subsequently of the magnificent school (*École Normale Secondaire Supérieure*) at Sèvres. He reviewed the manner in which the professors in the latter school had been appointed, and stated that *carte blanche* had been given to some of them with regard to the character of the new teaching and education which they would impart. He next described the curriculum of the school, which sometime after its establishment had been divided into two sections, one for literature and one for science, the most intelligent pupils of the first *promotion* having gone to the latter. From that time between fifteen and twenty young girls yearly had been admitted to the literature section, and as many to the scientific section. In order to be allowed to compete for admission to the school they must already hold certificates and "brevets" of some value. The teaching extended over three years; at the expiration of the second year the pupils must compete for a *certificat d'aptitude* (qualify-

ing) when they had to compete with candidates not belonging to the school. It was their ambition to head the list of successful candidates in such examinations and to uphold the reputation of the school of Sèvres. Those who failed completely (in the written examination) were not admitted to continue their third year's studies, at least in the present and temporary state of things. At the end of the third year they had to undergo the *examen d'agrégation* (for the granting of degrees) in competition with candidates from outside, already holding a *certificat d'aptitude.* The teaching consisted in lessons given by a master, in lessons given by some of the students under the guidance of a master, and in written papers corrected by the master or by the students under his direction. In the literature section it comprised the history of the French language, French and ancient literature, the history of civilisation and French history, geography, philosophy, German or English, elementary law, and elocution ; in the scientific section the teaching included arithmetic, algebra, physical science and practical chemistry, French literature, philosophy and elocution. The students on being admitted to the school of Sèvres undertook to serve for ten years in the University ; if they broke their engagement, they had to pay as many times 700 francs (£28) as they had been years in the school ; this sum hardly represented the school expenses, and the State generously made them a gift of the education they had received. When they left the school they became directresses or professors in girls' *lycées* or colleges. The discipline in the school of Sèvres was truly maternal. The directress, Madame Jules Favre, widow of the eminent statesman, by the sole influence of superior intelligence and character, had succeeded in inspiring in the hundred or so students so respectful a sympathy, and so deep a devotion, that the mere fear of displeasing her, and the desire of anticipating her wishes had become the basis of the discipline at Sèvres. In conclusion, Professor Darmesteter said that the system for the higher education of women had already produced good results and he trusted

that it was opening up a new era in the education of women.

Mr. STORR (Merchant Taylors' School) wished to make a few remarks upon one or two points on which he thought there might be a difference of opinion, in order to elicit and accentuate the difference. The first and foremost question was whether women's education was to be identical with that of men. Was that the ideal at which they were to aim? He thought not. He had supported, as far as in him lay, to the best of his ability, all the forward movements in connection with women's education which had taken place, ending with the full degree of the universities. As woman's education was 20 years ago, it was thought that woman was not capable of the same development as man, that they were to be on an inferior level, taught different subjects, and taught in another way. Now, he thought that that rank heresy had almost disappeared. He wanted all the universities to continue open to women, and he hoped that a certain number of the women would go up to the universities. They had already shown their ability to hold their own against men. Mrs. Bryant, as they were all aware, had only one compeer in the University of London; there was only one other graduate who had obtained a degree of Doctor in that branch of science. He merely named her because she was the writer of the paper they had heard. He might add a long list of ladies who had obtained honours at the older universities. Having proved their capacity, he thought women should try and get universities for themselves. He hoped to see women's universities founded separate from men's universities. That led him to the second point—the second challenge he would throw down. Miss Beale had told them that she, as far as possible, had no competition in her schools. He thought that was a very debatable point at any rate. He thought if she were consistent she could not send in her girls for the Cambridge Tripos, or for the University of London Tripos. That certainly was competition. He thought there was a reaction against the excessive competition of

men's education, and especially of boy's education, but he did not think it was a principle they could afford entirely to eliminate. Emulation was part of human nature, and had produced more good than harm. He did not see how anyone who believed in Darwinism, who believed that the progress of the human race depended on the struggle for existence, could entirely eliminate the principle of competition. There was one other lance, a very slight one, he would like to break with his friend, Miss Beale—that was with reference to what she said about measurements. If he understood her she said that such things could not be—at any rate in a day school—attempted. He merely threw that out, and he hoped nobody would follow him in it but it was rather a hobby of his own. He had lately, when attending the Medical Conference, regretted the total absence of schoolmasters from that Conference, and he now no less regretted the absence of doctors from the present Conference. He thought they had a good deal to learn one from the other. Miss Beale, Mrs. Bryant, and some others could have told the doctors that they were talking about what they did not know when they discussed the evils of overwork in girls' schools, but he thought the doctors might fairly say to them, "You do not help us to arrive at a just estimate, and unless you measure you can never know whether girls or boys are overworked." That, he thought, was a thing the Conference should aim at establishing in all schools, from the elementary to the highest school, and he thought it was wanted in the higher schools even more than in the elementary schools. There ought to be medical inspection. To return to his main point: he would throw down this as a subject of debate—Was the ideal of education that women's education should be identical, as to subjects, with that of men?

Mrs. BYLES said that two statements had been made on that platform which she was prepared to carry perhaps further than the speakers themselves would carry them; she referred to Mrs. Bryant's statement that the end of the school was the formation of character, and to Miss Beale's

statement that the powers for good were stronger than the powers for evil. She thought that might be carried very far in regard to girls' schools, and she would be prepared to make girls' schools more analogous to boys' schools than they were at present; she meant in the thorough mixture of classes. She was very anxious to eliminate from all good girls' schools any stain of class interest, and any stain of the old superstitions that divided men and women from each other, and especially women from women. In past generations women had been more divided than men. She had been connected for some years with two large girls' schools, one in Bradford and one in Saltaire; and they were founded upon the ordinary public school lines. They were endowed schools, and they were obliged to admit by competition girls from elementary schools. They received in those schools girls of all grades, children of professional men, of working men, of shop-keepers, and of every grade, and they found the mixture of classes, instead of being an evil, as many of the more cultured parents feared at first it would be, was an unmixed good. Many of the artisans of the North of England were supposed to be rough uncultured people; in some particulars they might be, but the schools naturally got girls from the aristocracy of the artisans, and she did not know a finer race of people than they—they were of fine intellectual material. They had girls sometimes in their schools for seven or eight years, and then sent them forward to a university, where they had done extremely well. The head mistresses said that after a term or two there was no difference perceptible among the girls of different grades, and the girls themselves often did not know who the scholarship holders were. She thought they were very often apt to fight against this free mixing of classes in the development of girls' education; but she was anxious that all girls' schools should be founded upon the best principles of modern socialism—of modern democracy.

Miss ALICE WOODS (Bedford Park School) wished to say one or two words in regard to Mr. Storr's challenge about

competition. It was a great delight to her to hear Miss Beale, as the principal of one of the most important schools in England, speak so earnestly about the absence of competition in her school. It was often said that it was impossible for children to be brought up without competition, as it was against their nature not to compete; but she did not for a moment believe that to be the case. She was sure that anybody who tried the system of non-competition would find that the children took to it most readily, and worked with great earnestness, provided their teachers were enthusiastic in wishing to do away with competition as far as they possibly could. The child would work more eagerly for the sake of its class and for the sake of its school than it would for the sake of itself, if it were only properly trained. It was also said that non-competition was not properly fitting children for after life. That in the world there must be a struggle for existence, in which people were shoving one another against the wall. But there again she believed it was not necessarily true. But even, if it were, if they must compete later on, why should we not let them have a few years of life in which they were aiming at a higher ideal? Why should we not prepare them to reach a higher standpoint than we ourselves have reached? If we are forced to struggle perpetually, why should not a better and nobler generation of men and women than ourselves be trained up, who would not need the continual struggle of competition, but would rather strive after continual progress.

Professor ARMSTRONG desired to take the opportunity of expressing on that platform the hope he had already expressed in another Section of the Conference with reference to the teaching of science in schools. The view which he and, he believed, a great many of his friends held was, that in that respect as in many others, with regard to education, women were far ahead of men, and that they were making a very much better beginning in the teaching of science than was being made in boys' schools. What he had been particularly urging at the

Conference with reference to the teaching of science in schools was that there should not be any specialization of sciences : that they should not teach in a school, whatever its grade, in the earlier portion of the school career at all events, any one branch of science to the exclusion of other branches, but that they should teach science in a way in which it was hardly possible to teach it at present, on account of the want of teachers and books, with direct reference to the daily needs of life : that, in fact, they should not teach chemistry, physics, mechanics, or any one branch of science alone. The elements of all those branches of science which were applicable to the necessities of daily life should be taught, not only with reference to the necessities of life, but more particularly, in the first instance, in so far as they contributed to the development of character, which Miss Beale had said was the primary object to be achieved. By development of character he understood her to mean something very much wider than he supposed was ordinarily understood by that phrase : not mere character, but the power of observing and of reasoning, which were the great things to be developed by the teaching of science. He expressed the hope that when the subject was taken into consideration an endeavour would be made to avoid specialization. He thought that examinations like those of the London University, were likely, unless modified very soon, to do a great deal of harm, as he was of the opinion that if Miss Beale and others continued as they were now doing to teach science with the object of passing those examinations, they would not be teaching it in the way in which it ought to be taught, not in a useful way but professionally, and it was that they ought particularly to avoid. Mr. Storr raised a point with reference to the extent to which the education of men and women should be carried on on different lines. It appeared to him that one argument which had been raised elsewhere would lead them to desire that as far as possible, they should be carried on on the same lines, in other words that, in the main, women should have the same education as men. A child's

character was formed in its early years, during which it came directly under the mother's influence. The average father exercised very little influence upon the child. He had not time, as a rule, to pay attention to the child's education, and it was the mother who guided the child and formed the child's character. On that account he thought it was exceedingly important that the education of both sexes should be carried on, as far as possible, on the same lines. Of course certain special subjects should be taught to women and not to men, and *vice versa*, but he believed that the two kinds of education need only differ in that respect.

Mr. SONNENSCHEIN said that the papers of Miss Beale and Mrs. Bryant seemed to him to be complete. Those ladies had set before them a very high ideal, but people were in continual feeling with the circumstances by which they were surrounded. Mrs. Byrant had set before them an ideal they were to follow, but they were not all strong enough to carry it out unless they were rendered primarily independent of examinations. Miss Beale, to his great delight, had told them she had no competition in her school. From his own experience he could say competitions were unnecessary and very injurious, and he hoped they would soon arrive at a time when they would be abolished. They could do very well indeed without them, and a child need only be told of his or her actual and not of the relative merits. The exercises should be corrected in a scientific manner, and the pupil should be told what he had done. It was nothing to him if his neighbour had done better or worse, provided he had done the best in his power. He spoke from experience when he said that he found the answers were satisfactory, and that the children of a good school took great pride that they had no examination. It was the same with punishment and reward. There was no need for punishment and still less need for reward. All that they had to do was to say to the child that he would take the direct consequences of his deed, and if he had worked carelessly he should not be allowed to go on to

the next stage, but should be told to do his work over again. Mr. Storr had put the question whether girls' and boys' education should be carried on on the same lines, and he would answer that it should be on the same lines. If they began to teach boys they did so on the same lines, although one may grow up a doctor, another a merchant and so on. Boys were left to specialize their education at a later stage. They treated the boy as a human being, and he wanted to treat a girl exactly in the same way. They had no right to determine beforehand what she should be, and she could settle that for herself. One lady had spoken about class interests in the schools, and that was a great difficulty to be encountered. Certain people said their daughters should not go to a school because the grocer's daughter went. He spoke to a grocer who said : "If you want to overcome that difficulty you will find it a sore stumbling-block, for you will find the same difficulty amongst tradespeople. The draper thinks himself better than the grocer, the grocer thinks himself better than the butcher, and so on. Why, at last you will admit the daughter of a chimney-sweep." He happened to know a chimney-sweep who was a gentleman, and his answer was, "Why not?" Still public opinion must be formed, and he was sure public opinion was formed by teachers, and by what would go forth from that Conference, and that difficulty they would be able to surmount.

Mrs. FENWICK MILLER (School Board for London) said that when she heard Mr. Storr's speech her soul burned within her at what he said about treating girls differently from boys. She hoped they had gone past that. They had had it some hundreds of years or more in different branches of society, and she had hoped it had gone past. They had to deal with brains, they had to take the brain of a child—and the brain included the moral as well as the intellectual faculties—and they had to do the best that they could with it. They had, as far as possible, to enlarge it, to improve it, to extend its powers, in one word, to educate it. Now that brain was the same in a boy as in a girl.

She defied any anatomist to take a boy's brain and a girl's brain and find out, apart from previous knowledge, which was that boy's brain and which was that girl's brain. If nature had intended there should be girl subjects and boy subjects nature would have made their brains in a somewhat different manner. There were some subjects which boys did not need, and there were some subjects which girls did not need, but the brain in both must be educated in the same way. They must not over-look one fact when they asked if the curriculum of a girls' school should be exactly the same as a boys' ; it was at present a matter of debate what ought to be a boys' curriculum, and it was just as uncertain about boys as it was about girls what was going to be the curriculum of the future. The old style of teaching—the old classical methods—were struggling now with the modern methods, and natural science was bidding high for the principal places in the school ; and who amongst them would venture to predict whether twenty-five years hence the curriculum for boys or girls would be anything like what it had been in the past. It would be absurd to say because boys in the past had had a certain curriculum that girls of the future should have *that* curriculum. It was to a certain extent an open question for boys and for girls, and such able ladies as they had that day heard, ladies whom she deeply reverenced and envied too for the greatness and grandeur of the work they were doing, such able ladies as the head mistresses they had heard that day, were amongst those who would have in large part to settle that question of what was to be the future curriculum. She saw many people before her who would not blindly follow in any path previously chalked out, but would take an independent and firm stand, and consider fully for themselves what were the best methods of education, and what were the best subjects for teaching. As regarded, special Universities for women only, such a thing would never do at present, as the degrees would be considered inferior to those of men. Such ladies as Dr. Mrs. Bryant, and others of her sort, by proving that women could go

into the same field with men, and could do precisely what men could do, as well as men could do it, might make it possible some day in the future to have universities for women. The women who went in for men's examinations and proved capable of passing them had in their own single person done more for elevating women than oceans of talk upon platforms could do. Professor Armstrong led the way to one thing she wanted to say, and that was that after a careful and wide study of the work of what women had done in the past, of course a mere particle to what they were going to do in the future, she had come to two conclusions. In the first place she believed the female intellect to be specially strong on the practical side. That was to say, she believed that women were specially capable of taking scientific principles, and drawing from those scientific principles practical rules for daily conduct. That which Professor Bain had called "practical science" she believed to be specially within the reach of women. If they looked at what women had done with limited opportunities for studying any science, they would see that the special strength of women had always been in drawing practical value out of scientific principles of which they got hold. It was quite clear that women would have a special work to do in the future, but it would not be for them to arbitrarily lay down any rule, but they must leave the question for women to work it out for themselves. She believed the way they would work it out was chiefly by morals, she meant the practical conduct of daily life ; and she believed there would be a development, of which they did not dream, of morals founded upon science, of good conduct based upon reason, and upon reasoned facts, such as had never yet been seen, and such as they could hardly conceive. She believed that the great work for which the world was waiting was a science from which they could draw their daily life lessons, and that she hoped was for women to do in the future.

The CHAIRMAN said he was tempted to say one or two words with regard to Mrs. Miller's very admirable speech.

In the first place he thought it was somewhat dangerous to put forward the fact that woman had special gifts, and if she had special gifts that would seem to suggest special duties. For many generations women were excluded from certain subjects which men studied, and in their own time that was felt by the great universities. He entirely sympathised with the great movement during the last quarter of a century to teach girls many subjects from which they were formerly excluded. He wished to ask whether they had not made a mistake in that respect, if they added to what girls learnt before a number of subjects which formerly were studied exclusively by boys, that now the curriculum of girls' schools was largely overcharged. They were not only studying what boys studied, but what girls used to study, and he was somewhat afraid they were endeavouring to do too much. There was another aspect of it. It put girls to a great disadvantage who were desirous of carrying on their education at the universities. If a girl had been obliged to study a very extensive curriculum at school, she was at a great disadvantage at the universities, where special courses of study were taken up.

Dr. STRACHAN wished to say a few words with regard to health of girls in connection with their school work. Mr. Storr told them that probably ladies connected with schools would tell doctors that they were speaking about what they did not understand ; but doctors did understand that girls got into bad health in connection with their work. Doctors did not profess to understand the details of school management, but they knew that ; and another thing they knew was that there ought not to be bad health in connection with education. Looking upon education from a physiological point of view, it was a perfectly natural process, quite as much as taking food. All young people had to learn a great deal in a perfectly spontaneous and natural way, and what a school required to do was to add to that, or rather, to lead that process in the direction which was required by the work of life. It had been said that if the health suffered, there must be something wrong in the

procedure, though they did not necessarily see what was wrong. . If he were to attempt to indicate what might be wrong, he would say that it was when they introduced false stimuli to mental action. There was an appetite, or as it was called in mental work, there was an interest which was the true and only guide as to what was the proper action for the young mind. Of course they must remember that in dealing with the young they were dealing with a preparatory process. They were not dealing with an organ which was ready for hard work, but they were preparing an organ for hard work, and that was not to be done by hard work, but by following nature in the course which nature had taken. Nature had the very object in view that the teacher had in view in developing the mind. Nature or their Maker had provided for that, and they said physiologically that that provision must be sufficient for the purpose. He would therefore say that it was a most dangerous process to stimulate, to tempt the mind by prizes, or to urge it by punishments, to do that which the mind naturally turned against. With regard to the health of girls, Miss Beale, he believed, had mentioned that there was a very small proportion of girls laid up in her school ; but still girls being laid up in the school was not the only indication of injury to health which they had to look to. Doctors knew that after girls had done with school, although perhaps they had not suffered during school life, yet various forms of bad health developed themselves afterwards ; the reason being that the development of the body, and especially of the brain, had been interfered with by the strain which had been experienced while the body was in course of development. They well knew that hard strain upon any organ which was being developed, interfered with that process, and caused weakness in after life, although not at the time. He thought there was a very good tendency now to make education as practical as possible. The idea was not only to educate the mind, but it was to furnish the mind with ideas, and with knowledge which would be useful in future life. The ideas and the knowledge which

would be useful to any girl, were different from those which would be useful to a boy; and in that respect he thought that a girl's education might well differ in some respects from a boy's. He was very far from thinking there was any deficiency, and they had had good reason that day to see that there was no deficiency in woman's intellect; but he did think that it was somewhat different from men's. It was intended for a different sphere of life, it ought to be educated for that sphere of life, and he thought a very great deal of good would accrue to the country from the education of girls being directed with a view to help them in their work.

Mrs. WILLIAM BURBURY (Member of the Council of the Teachers' Guild) said with regard to overwork, that she had for many years been a member of the governing body of one of the largest girls' schools, and in all cases enquired into, it had been found that any suffering from overwork had been due to the want of proper care at home, as to the way the work was done. Parents too often allowed their children to waste the afternoon, and then in the evening the children had sometimes to go on working very late, preparing the next day's lessons, and in those cases no doubt ill effects were felt. The expense of a university career must always be great, and for a long time she feared that parents would not be very ready, and they were often not able, to bear the expense. They had already in the universities a great amount of teaching power, and if they started fresh universities for women it meant increased expense, and doing something perhaps not quite so well as it was already done. She considered it was a great point that women should not be shut out from those employments which brought profit and honour, and competition in the school and the university would prepare them for competition in after life.

Miss BEALE, in reply to the remarks which had been made, said she had no objection to children being measured and weighed, and their diet considered, and their dress looked after. All that she said was that the overburdened

teachers in *day* schools could not undertake to do that, and that proper people ought to be appointed to do it whom she had called sanitarians. She hoped they would come into existence, and their special work would be to keep people well. The next point was that it was said she could not send candidates for University examinations, if she disapproved of competition. There need be none if the members in each class are unlimited. In the London University there was some slight competition in the honours list, inasmuch as people were put down in order of merit. She thought if that were all, candidates might forget that altogether, and go on doing their work as well as they could. She supposed competition must go on in later life, but she thought the young had to be educated out of selfishness into unselfishness; later on, when the man or woman had to labour for themselves, then they might safely do that which they could not have done in their earlier years without some injury to their moral nature. When people have to earn and provide for others it is different. When

> "Love took up the harp of Life, and smote on all the chords with might,
> Smote the chord of Self, that, trembling, pass'd in music out of sight."

She thought that science was being taken up in girls' schools in the right way, but much more ought to be done. It was very important to do it in early years before there was any thought of examination. At her school they took science in the lowest classes, they began with botany, treating it as a classificatory science low down in the school, then they dropped it for a certain number of years, and took it up later on, physiologically, higher in the school. Throughout the College they had a course of scientific study, first of botany, which naturally led to the study of life, then zoology, then they passed on to the laws of health, and tried to teach many things useful about cleanliness and fresh air, to open the eyes of little children and to make them somewhat practical. Then they had physical

geography including the causes of currents, tides and winds, geology, the great science of space and time, and cosmography, mathematical-physics, some atomic science, and by degrees each branch of science was passed under review. There were several things as to which she would venture to dissent from Mrs. Miller. Dissensions as to whether women were equal to men were injurious in many ways. She thought that as girls would be injured if they were told they were to row in the University Boat Race, so if they were set to do things which required a strain upon the physical energies, injury was likely to be done. They should not shut their eyes to the fact that women must not think of competition as the main object of life, and that they must merely try to do what was right, and to do it as well as they could. As to some of the things which had been said about setting aside authority, and making fresh beginnings, those who had studied the revolutionary history of the world, knew what great danger there was when people cast aside authority. They were not to be slaves to it, but they must always carefully consider when they departed from well-established notions, whether they might not possibly be wrong and the collective wisdom of the world might not be more likely to be right. It seemed to her a little illogical to say that women were exactly equal to men, and then to say that women were better in certain things. With regard to Mr. Sonnenschein's speech, she had been delighted to hear such a distinguished teacher speak upon the question of moral training, and as to there being no need for rewards and punishments. Canon Daniel was certainly right when he said that too much had been added to a girl's education. They ought to make the greatest possible efforts to prevent the examinations which hindered culture from getting a hold on the country. She hoped that Professor Armstrong and others would do all they could to improve the examinations of the London University. More than one hundred of her pupils had passed the matriculation, some had passed the B.A. examination, and eight the inter-

mediate examination. She had never felt the evils of the examination much until last year. Hitherto they had sent in girls already educated, but when they began to prepare girls for those examinations before they were fully educated, she felt that their attention was diverted too soon from those things which were most essential. She never allowed a girl to take the London University examination alone, but would insist on culture subjects as well. That did rather overburden them, and she saw now it would be an injury, and at whatever cost she would be obliged to give it up unless forces were brought to bear to get the examination altered. She was sure that leading educationalists felt so strongly with her upon that point, that all they wanted was united action, and the Senate of the London University would consider it. It was the most unsatisfactory examination she knew of as regards culture.

ORGANIZATION OF INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

FRIDAY, AUGUST 8, 10 A.M.

Chairman: The Lord REAY.

THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, LOCALLY AND BY THE STATE.

By Hon. E. LYULPH STANLEY, M.P.

THAT Secondary Education should be a matter of concern to the State is admitted even in this country where special circumstances have tended to retard and restrict the action of the State within far narrower limits than is usual on the Continent, in the United States, and in our own colonies. But though it is admitted that the State is concerned in the progress of secondary and higher education, we have not seriously defined the responsibilities of the State, much less have we attempted in any real sense to discharge them. Some years ago it was natural that politicians should shrink from taking up this question, with all its risks of offending powerful vested interests; but the great spread of elementary education consequent on the Act of 1870, the growing demand for a more liberal education, and the great improvement in elementary schools, have made it impossible to stand still much longer; and the reform and extension of our intermediate education will certainly be undertaken in a very few years from now. The Endowed Schools Com-

missioners in 1868, after four years' inquiry, reported in favour of a far more liberal and comprehensive scheme for the organization of our secondary instruction than Parliament has hitherto had the courage to adopt.

Not only have many of their recommendations been abandoned or neglected, but we find that the slow work of reform of our existing endowments is still dragging on and unfinished. It is well to remind those who have forgotten them how extensive were the views of those Commissioners in the Report which they presented unanimously to Parliament.

They contemplated tentatively the complete organization of the secondary instruction of England.

The country was to be mapped out into the eleven registration districts. In each of these an educational council would have been formed which would have had wide powers of regulating and co-ordinating the various educational endowments of their districts, subject to a certain amount of control by the Education Department. They hoped in time to see a representative board for each county, and for each large town of 100,000, which would take over from these larger areas the management of secondary education for their respective districts. When the utmost use had been made of the old endowments, as there would have been many places either inadequately supplied with or totally devoid of secondary and higher schools, they recommended further a permissive rating power for the establishment, equipment, and maintenance of suitable school buildings, rising from the third grade school at a fee of from two to four guineas a year, for the parishes and groups of parishes, to the second grade schools with fees from six to twelve guineas in towns of 5000 inhabitants and upwards, and to third grade schools with fees from twelve to twenty-five guineas in towns of 20,000 inhabitants and upwards.

In addition, teachers were to be duly certificated in future in order to qualify them for appointment in the reformed schools, and the schools themselves were to be subject to a yearly inspection and examination.

Such a scheme as this would have paved the way to a complete organization of our secondary education. Had it been enacted ten or fifteen years ago, it would have educated public opinion, and would have furnished a framework in which a growing system of liberal progress would have found support and facilities for development. Unfortunately, we still find ourselves in a chaos of struggling trustees, misapplied endowments, and ill directed criticism, among which we seem to need a fresh education to direct and form public opinion as to the best lines of progress for secondary instruction. And we must remember that the Commissioners as long ago as 1868 reported that there ought to be secondary school provision for sixteen in a thousand of the population of England, that is, for about 430,000 children at the present time, and they further stated that provision ought at once to have been made for ten in a thousand, or about 270,000 at the present time. Of these 430,000 children, more than 200,000 belong to what is generally called the lower middle class, who need education in third grade schools, that is, persons whose systematic education would be apt to cease at fifteen or sixteen. This is a class which feels more severely than any other the pressure of the school rate. They see the children of artizans and labourers getting, partly at their expense, an education in some respects better than that of their own children, and they may not unnaturally complain that after their needs were so clearly proclaimed in 1868, hardly anything should have been done for them in all these years.

No doubt the establishment of higher elementary schools, such as we have seen in Sheffield and Manchester, is doing something for this class, and a certain improvement and development of these might do much to supply the gap as far as third grade schools are concerned, which are not very clearly separated from the upper classes of an ordinary elementary school. The *École Primaire Supérieure*, as it is being now established in France, represents a type not dissimilar, which furnishes a good practical and scientific instruction for the children of those thoughtful working

men who are willing to sacrifice a year or two of the labour of their children to their educational advancement, and for the tradesmen and clerks of moderate incomes who need to place their children in business at about fifteen or sixteen. These higher elementary schools have been actively encouraged by the Education Department in the time of Lord George Hamilton as well as of Mr. Mundella, and a few modifications of the Code would enable them to take a wider extension. It must be remembered that one half of the children requiring secondary instruction belong to this class, which verges on the primary stage of instruction.

In London alone, according to the figures of the Royal Commissioners of 1868, there are eight in the thousand, or 32,000 children, needing this class of instruction. If the school boards should gradually discharge this duty, either singly, or in rural districts by association, pending the formation of larger areas, we should then require a new organization only for the second and first grade schools, and many of these could easily be formed out of existing endowments, which need to be so used as to popularise education; whereas at present in general the richer the endowment the greater the tendency to exclusiveness and costliness is the school.

Something has been done of late years by private effort to stop the gap in education of which we are complaining. Country schools have been established for the farmers. Some grammar schools have been reorganized. Towns such as Birmingham, fortunate in the possession of a rich endowment, have done much by a net-work of schools to meet the needs of the commercial classes.

The work of the Girls' Public Day School Company should not be overlooked, which is now educating more than 5000 girls in the most thorough manner at a cost of from £12 to £15 a head. Moreover, the success of the Girls' Public Day School Company has called out a host of imitators. Local companies of shareholders, local schools without shareholders, are all following in the same path, with varying success, and on the whole with very good results. But

when all these efforts are considered, the educational deficiency of the middle class still remains a crying evil, all the more glaring by contrast with the great progress in elementary teaching.

How are we to remedy this state of things? Not, I should say, by the direct and centralized action of the State. The centralized action of the State through the Education Department has been, and is for the present, perhaps, a necessary mode of bringing about the progress we admit in elementary education. But the time is, I hope, approaching when elementary education may pass into the responsible hands of local representative bodies, and then we shall look for a substantial amount of decentralization, and a material modification of the uniform exactions of the Code.

It would be a pity to introduce any such system into secondary education. At the same time we require responsible and competent supervision of our secondary schools; and that will best be obtained by local and mainly representative bodies, administering an area large enough for them to have the direction of several schools, for it is by the extension of the authority of the educational governing bodies that we shall best secure their competence. I should be inclined to say, with the Commissioners of 1868, that as a rule the county would be a good area for the administration of secondary education. I should, however, be inclined to let towns of 40,000 administer themselves outside of the county, and even somewhat smaller towns if they showed themselves able and willing heartily to do justice to the local needs for higher education.

We should require the intervention of a Government Department, to do for secondary education what has already been done for primary. When the law has laid down what is the needful provision in this respect, the Education Department would consider all the existing means for supplying that provision, and would notify to the local authority, whether county board, town council, school board, or new body created for the purpose, the duty of filling up the deficiency, all schools of proved efficiency and suitability

would be reckoned within the supply, including private or denominational schools, if in accordance with the views and means of the population. This educational body would also, no doubt, be largely represented in the government of the existing endowed schools, even if they were not turned over entirely to its management. The cost of supplying secondary education would not be as great as that of supplying elementary education. Thus a town of 100,000 inhabitants, on the supposition that sixteen in the 1000 would require such education, would need provision for 1600 children, of whom 800 would be in third grade, about 500 in second grade, and 300 in first grade schools. The cost of buildings and maintenance might be shared between the locality and the State, and it might be provided that in no case should the local rate exceed 2d. in the pound.

Such a scheme would enable localities at no unreasonable cost to provide a complete system of secondary education, far better and cheaper than that which is now supplied in such a haphazard fashion, so capriciously as to its distribution, so unequal in its quality. If such a general plan of education were in force the local authority would have a wide power of settling the kind of teaching, and according to the character of the locality we should have schools of a more scientific, a more literary, or a more artistic or technical character.

Though this paper relates rather to the local supply and maintenance of secondary schools than to their teaching organisation, let me in passing object to the classification of second and first grade schools. I would rather describe the two types as scientific and literary, differing in aim but equal in thoroughness.

The State must undoubtedly have some general supervision and some voice in the arrangements. But the predominant authority should be the local one. The burden also should be largely local, rates and fees together would probably amount to fully two-thirds of the whole cost. The State might fairly pay the other third. Such a system as this would be popular and progressive, and the largeness

of the areas of administration would secure educated boards and enable them to employ efficient inspectors.

Undoubtedly, as was proposed by the Commissioners of 1868, provision would have to be made by scholarships for the free education of deserving scholars from the elementary schools; indeed, something more than free education would be required; there must be some money payment to enable a poor parent to maintain his child during education, and to compensate him to some extent for the loss of his earnings; but this need not be to any great extent. With such a system of secondary education at moderate fees and open to special merit in all classes, we should not hear the discontented murmurs of those who complain that the poor are being robbed by the reforms of our old grammar schools. I sympathise with the action of the Charity Commissioners in their schemes for the reform of the grammar schools, and believe that not only have they honestly followed the lines of the Endowed Schools Acts, but further, that on the whole those lines were rightly traced. Still it cannot be denied that many of the old endowments were expressly designed for the poor, take specially such cases as Christ's Hospital and Dulwich, nor can it be denied that these and many other charities are in practice almost exclusively enjoyed by the middle-class and the well to do. It would be a mischievous abuse of these charities to apply them to elementary education; such an application would relieve the well to do and not the poor, for it would lighten the rates, which are mostly paid by those who do not attend elementary schools. Still it is desirable that the poor should clearly see that they are now deriving a benefit from these endowments, which they believe were left for them; free scholarships from the elementary schools will do something to meet this demand, but these only reach a few, and rarely the poorest, whose wretched homes and insufficient food prevent them from competing successfully in examinations with those comparatively well off. Care too must be taken that the scholarships do not merely displace a scholar from his social surroundings, introduce him to habits of more

expensive living, and undo indirectly the good they were intended to confer. What is strongly demanded by a large number of working men is free education, not doled out to individuals after an offensive and inquisitorial inquiry into their domestic circumstances, but as the proper complement of a national system of compulsory education. This demand for free schools is not affected by the weighty arguments used by the Commissioners of 1868 against the system they found in force of free secondary schools. Fees may very fairly be collected in them, even if elementary education be made free. But it is much to be desired that in districts where there have hitherto been free schools, some portion of the endowment should be applied towards making free the public elementary schools, especially those in the poorer districts. This I believe would be a great gain to the cause of education, and would satisfy a sentiment which, unless it be satisfied to some extent, may lead to a strong feeling of resentment against the general administration of the Endowed Schools Acts, undeserved, I admit, but which nevertheless will have force and will do harm. Moreover there are cases where old endowments are applied to elementary schools with a high fee, so that the really poor cannot attend them. These cases are a sheer waste of the endowment, and a clear injustice to the poor ; for if such a school be established out of charitable endowments it should be for the poorest class, and in these cases, if at all, some scheme of feeding the children who attend might possibly be put in force without disadvantage.

So, too, if an old endowment should be applied to establish an advanced elementary school, like the central school at Sheffield, the fee should be fixed so that any child proceeding to such a school should be admitted at no higher a fee than he was paying in his previous school.

But these are incidental considerations and suggestions rather, for the purpose of conciliating the good will of the working class to an act which I believe to be very beneficial, but which excites some prejudice among them. The main object of endowment, and of the supplementary foundation

of schools from local and national sources, should be to establish a complete and systematic course of liberal secondary instruction, adapted to the needs of to-day and to all classes who might use the schools, accessible at moderate fees and managed by the elected and responsible representatives of the locality where they are situated.

DISCUSSION.

Lord FORTESCUE said that some of the points mentioned in the paper they had listened to seemed rather irrelevant to the subject they had to discuss, and he only referred to them in order to enter a caveat against being supposed to agree with all that had been said. Referring to the work of the Endowed Schools Commissioners mentioned, he could from forty years' Parliamentary experience say their report was the most statesmanlike and most exhaustive report made by any committee or any body of commissioners that he remembered, and he regretted that its recommendations were not carried into effect. What was done was this. A preamble was passed, in which the measure was announced as based upon the report of that Commission. The report of that Commission, as was truly said, was based on the idea of establishing provisional authorities originally, in the first instance, in the eleven registration districts, but subsequently intended to be extended to the counties. The Act was brought forward under false pretences, because it pretended to be based on the report, while ignoring it altogether. The Provincial authorities were the engines on which the working of the measure entirely depended. But the Government omitted every part of their recommendation except one, always dear to the official mind, the creation of a body of Commissioners in Downing Street, with a body of Inspectors to work under them: and that body of Inspectors and that body of Commissioners, were to carry into effect, according

to the preamble, the recommendations of those Commissioners. The first Commissioners honestly endeavoured to do so, but they said, from want of any provisional bodies, they found themselves powerless to deal with the question except piecemeal, without any regard to the wants of large districts, isolatedly, endowment by endowment, and school by school. And the result had been the continuation of the chaotic discord mentioned by Mr. Stanley. But the worst result was that whereas the previous state of misuse, abuse, and disuse invited reform, the present state of respectable misuse prevented any attack being made upon it ; and they got a state of things established utterly without principle, devoid of any general comprehensiveness, and yet without any such startling abuses as to provoke a general reform. Mr. Stanley said he objected to the distinction between the first grade and the second grade. The distinction laid down by the Commissioners between the first, second, and third grades, was a distinction in age, but not a distinction of studies, and therefore it extended to all subjects, whether scientific or more distinctly literary. He was quite against the State interfering in the way Mr. Stanley suggested, and settling what were the requirements of each district, and how they were to be supplied. In these days of railways, parents with children qualified to go to a secondary school, might be allowed to choose schools outside their districts. In his county school, they had frequently boys from London and from Gloucestershire, and perhaps it gave a premium to well-conducted and successful establishments, as they were tested by their results. He did not hold the idea that they should have separate administering bodies for any number of inhabitants so small as 40,000 ; but in a wider area they might have schools. He did not object to *membresses* as well as members being part of the governing body, they would thus have persons taking a larger view with less of the petty local desire to get money spent in the place than was found in smaller bodies. It seemed to him, that some such division as was suggested by the Commissioners was much more

likely to work well than a town of 40,000 inhabitants. They knew the extent to which miserable party feeling was carried, particularly in towns, and the degree to which the efficiency, smoothness, and general acceptability of the education given in a school would be likely to be sacrificed by a party triumph. The fact of making it unacceptable to a number of people would of itself be one of the greatest rewards that could be enjoyed by too many of the violent partisans who were always scrambling for the occupation of positions of influence. He was truly glad this question had come up, because the question of day-schools and boarding-schools had hitherto been very imperfectly gone into.

The CHAIRMAN (Lord Reay) said he had asked Lord Fortescue to speak because his Lordship wished to be present at another section of the Conference, but he thought it would be convenient that Canon Daniel should read his paper in order that the two papers might be discussed together.

"THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PROVIDING FOR INTERMEDIATE AND HIGHER EDUCATION BY MEANS OF A RATE."

By the Rev. Canon DANIEL.

IT is a characteristic of our country not to innovate lightly in any matter, nor to supersede existing institutions, even when they are not absolutely perfect, without first ascertaining whether their defects are, or are not, remediable; and it will be in keeping with this characteristic to inquire at the outset of the present discussion, (1) whether Intermediate and Higher Education, as at present conducted in this country, are satisfactory, and, if not, wherein they are defective; and (2), whether they can be adequately improved on lines already in existence.

Intermediate Education covers the wide area that extends between elementary schools, charging an average fee of 9*d.* a week, and public schools, where the boarding and instruction of a lad costs some £200 a year. It is, at present, supplied mainly by Foundation Schools, Private Adventure Schools, Denominational Schools dependent on voluntary subscriptions, and Joint-stock Companies' Schools.

The Foundation Schools may be divided into the reformed and the unreformed. The latter, a rapidly diminishing number, are, in many cases, carried on in unsuitable buildings, constructed long ago, without much regard either to the exigencies of good teaching and good discipline, or to sanitary requirements; and their syllabus of studies is often regulated by statutes that were drawn up when modern languages and physical science had no place in a school curriculum, and when the study of the dead languages was regarded as the indispensable key to all knowledge that was worth acquiring. The reformed foundation schools have been re-modelled under carefully considered schemes from the Charity Commissioners, and have been thereby rendered as efficient as they could well be made. They have been provided with suitable buildings and an adequate staff; the course of studies has been adapted to meet the needs of the neighbourhood; and, when the funds of a school have allowed of it, scholarships have been provided for deserving scholars from the elementary schools, and for scholars desirous of proceeding to the universities or to other places affording a liberal education.

Private Adventure Schools are of every degree of efficiency, the least satisfactory, as might be expected, being the smaller schools, charging low fees. The larger schools of this class have made an enormous stride onwards during the last forty years, and have attracted the services of many able men, both from the universities and from among the teachers of elementary schools. Their freedom from external control has given them a great advantage over the old grammar schools in adapting their curriculum to local needs, and the stimulus supplied by competition and by

public examinations, has greatly improved their efficiency. With regard to the inferiority of the smaller private adventure schools, it must be borne in mind that small schools must always be either comparatively inefficient, or highly expensive. Effective teaching necessitates good classification; and good classification necessitates a large staff. Assistance from the rates would make no difference in this respect. It should be further remembered that, even in towns where it is possible to establish large schools, there will always be found a certain proportion of children too delicate for the rough life of a large school, and that these children can be best provided for in small schools conducted by private enterprise.

Denominational Middle Class Schools are for the most part confined to our large towns, and to children of the lower grades of the middle class. These schools being mostly conducted on a large scale, the children are well-classified, and the staff is thereby effectively and economically employed. Where the buildings are provided from other sources, these schools may, with their present fees, be made to pay their way, but I see no reason why they should not be entirely self-supporting. Parents soon learn to appreciate a good education, and, as soon as they appreciate it, are willing to pay for it.

A vast improvement upon the Middle Class Schools of the past, more especially upon the girls' schools of the past, have been the schools established by the various educational companies that have sprung up during the last twenty years. These schools are admirably organized, and the scale on which they are conducted allows of the employment of specialists as teachers. The syllabus is at once comprehensive and elastic; the methods of instruction and discipline are excellent; the schools are examined by representatives of the Universities, and the successes achieved by the pupils in the University Local Examinations show that these schools are superior, so far as results are concerned, to any corresponding class of schools in this country. Indeed, so far as I know, they may safely challenge com-

parison with any corresponding class of schools in any part of the world.

Started so recently as 1872, the Girls' Public Day School Company had, in 1883, twenty-seven schools in full operation, with an aggregate attendance of 4770 scholars. When I say that, after a liberal allowance for depreciation, this company pays its shareholders an annual dividend of 5 per cent., it will be clear that schools of this class may be made a good commercial investment, wherever there is a population sufficient to maintain a school on a large scale. The Church Schools' Company has not been in existence much more than a year, and has already started some six or seven middle-class schools of various kinds.

The question now arises, Are the weak places in our Middle Class School Organization remediable by agencies already at work? I venture to think they are. The Foundation Schools are being gradually improved in every respect, under the enlightened direction of the Charity Commissioners; the Private Adventure Schools are, under the stress of competition, rapidly obeying the law of the survival of the fittest; the Denominational Schools have it in their power to become self-supporting by a slight increase in their fees; the Educational Companies Schools are already unexceptionable. Surely our policy would seem to be to reform such of our foundation schools as are unreformed; to encourage the spirit of independence that has hitherto led the large majority of parents of the middle classes to provide, at their own expense, for the education of their children, and to foster the individual enterprise, the religious philanthropy and the voluntary co-operation already enlisted in the work of intermediate education. It has been too much assumed that the education of the middle classes stands on a different footing from other personal services of which they have need. The experiments of private and corporate enterprise have shown that it is a remunerative service, and the establishment of joint-stock companies, capable of indefinite expansion, has put it in the power of the middle classes to establish schools of their

own, precisely suited to their wants, wherever they are needed.

A system of Rate-supported Middle Class Schools must either *supplant* the existing Middle Class School Organization or *supplement* it, and in either case would be highly objectionable; if it supplants existing schools, it will inflict a vast injury on the proprietors of private schools and on the educational companies; if it supplements existing schools, it will compel parents who do not avail themselves of rate-supported schools to pay for middle class education twice over, first for their own children in schools such as they themselves approve of, and secondly for other people's children in schools they do not approve of. That many parents would have to submit to this injustice is certain, for the schools supported out of the rates could give no distinctive religious teaching, and, in many cases, would probably give no religious teaching at all.

It is difficult to see what advantages would attend the establishment of Rate-supported Middle Class Schools. It is true that such a step would tend to unify our educational machinery; but unification in itself is a merely theoretical advantage; one class of school does not begin where another leaves off; the elementary school is not preparatory, nor ought it to be preparatory, to the middle class school; each grade of school must give an education having, as far as possible, a completeness of its own. The few children in our elementary schools, who are in a position to benefit by passing into schools of a higher grade, find no difficulty in getting into such schools at present.

The objections to Rate-supported Middle Class Schools are manifold and weighty. I am not prepared to go as far as Mr. Herbert Spencer in denouncing the tendency of modern Liberalism, or, as he prefers to call it, "the new Toryism," to supersede voluntary, by compulsory, co-operation, for it seems to me perfectly legitimate for the State or the Municipality to take measures for the protection of those sections of the community that cannot protect themselves; but I can see no reason why the State or the

Municipality should provide for the middle classes schools that they are perfectly capable of providing for themselves. Those classes have not, as a rule, any desire to be pauperised by sending their children to schools provided for them at other people's expense; and the spirit of independence, by which they have hitherto been actuated, should, surely, be encouraged rather than weakened.

Rate-supported schools would inevitably be costly without affording any guarantee of increased efficiency; they would need an expensive machinery to work, over and above what is directly needed for education; they would afford room for all sorts of jobbery—jobbery in the purchase of school sites, jobbery in the assignment of contracts, jobbery in the provision of books and apparatus, jobbery in the appointment of teachers; independent of results, all they would have to do, if they proved inefficient, would be to dip a little deeper into the ratepayers' pockets. All experience teaches that the State and the Municipality are the worst possible producers of any commodity, from a cigar to an iron-clad ship; and that if you want a good article you must go to the open market for it, or produce it yourself, or combine with others to produce it. If you go to a shop having a Government monopoly, you may be sure that, even if the article be good (which is rarely the case), it is sure to be much more expensive than a corresponding article produced by private enterprise. No amount of public spirit will ever induce a board or other body, spending public money, to pay that close attention to improvements in production, to little gains and little losses, which is given by private traders having a pecuniary interest in their business. Even public companies cannot compete in this respect with private traders; but the best government or municipality is as far inferior, in point of efficiency and economy, to the best public company, as the best public company is inferior to the best private trader. The main advantages of corporate enterprise are those which arise from the command it gives over capital. An educational company can conduct schools on a large

scale and utilise the experience gained in the management of one in the management of another; it can provide suitable buildings, apparatus and staff; it can, to some extent, train its own teachers; it can afford to wait, longer than a private teacher, for profits; and it can secure for its direction the voluntary services of the very persons most competent to advise.

What middle class education wants is not aid from the rates, but trained teachers; and these will be unquestionably forthcoming in proportion as the improved prospects of middle class education encourage teachers to incur the expense of training. Colleges like those established at Bishopsgate and Cowper Street, will gradually render the same service to middle class schools as the establishment of the training colleges for elementary teachers rendered to elementary education.

A kindred service, that might be rendered by the State, would be to require from all persons engaged in education some satisfactory diploma with regard to their attainments and their practical skill in teaching, discipline and organization. The College of Preceptors and the University of Cambridge already provide, to some extent, for the granting of diplomas; and the value of such diplomas to teachers will speedily make them eagerly sought after; but the public at large are so deeply interested in education, that I venture to suggest, though with some reluctance, that the holding of a diploma should be made compulsory on all teachers. After all, such a step would only secure for the proper treatment of the mind a similar guarantee to that required from medical men for the proper treatment of the body.

I have not as yet spoken specifically of Higher Education, but, whatever arguments have been urged against Intermediate Education apply with still greater force to Higher Education, and need not be repeated. The system-builder would, of course, not rest content until the whole education of the country, from the elementary school to the university, was provided for out of Imperial taxation or local rates. Communistic proposals of this kind are the

fashion of the day, and are not restricted to educational matters. But I am convinced that nothing would, in the long run, more retard Intermediate and Higher Education than such a departure from the principles of free trade, as would be involved in placing these departments of our educational organisation in the hands of the State or the Municipality. The worst educated country in Europe is Russia, where education, in all its branches, is carried on exclusively by the State, and where, as we were recently told in the 'Times' by that well-informed writer, "Stepniak," "what is not done by the State is not done at all."

DISCUSSION.

Mr. C. P. NEWCOMBE said that the question under consideration seemed to be the renewal of one which had been dealt with in that room a few days ago, when it was proposed to revive the subject of the registration of teachers, and a gentleman who had read the paper on that subject had been very plainly told that the question was exactly in the same position now as it was in twenty-three years ago, that people were just as eager and enthusiastic about it then as they were now, and the speaker predicted that they might go on another twenty-three years before they would ever accomplish such a result, because the proposal was essentially un-English, and one that would meet with opposition in all directions. The question of making all the education of this country national education was one that needed to be looked at very closely indeed. He contended that they had no right to take their examples from other countries. England was essentially different from either Germany or France, and certainly from Russia, a country which had been referred to. But they had a very good example of what freedom could do where it got a chance in a country such as France by the admirable exhibit of the Christian Brothers, which showed the grand results which

religious enthusiasm had accomplished. They there saw a system of education which was better than the national system of education which France had produced, or ever could produce, and it was entirely the result of the free operations of an enthusiastic society. He contended that was a very important element which must be carefully preserved in this country. The question was not one between absolute uniformity on one side, and unrestricted license on the other, but between universal State rule, and only so much of it as was necessary to regulate the endowments that had been so grossly abused. And co-existent with that there was a system of absolute freedom from State control of education conducted by a number of persons working under the influence of their own enthusiasm, a thing which could not be regulated by the State, and which had produced and would produce, whether they tried to put it down or not, results which were of the utmost value. It must be admitted that even a State system was good or bad according to the amount of freedom it gave to its servants, but certainly in science and in art they did a good deal of mischief if they attempted to regulate those by State control. They must have free men, just as in the military system they need now and then a man like Gordon who would not be controlled, but would persist in doing as he pleased. They would not like in this country a system like that which some years ago a Minister of Education boasted of in France. He took out his watch, and said that at that particular moment all over France the schools were doing precisely the same lesson out of the same book, and that the whole thing was regulated by clockwork. They did not want that. Some of them would remember that in England a few years ago, a minister, whom he had no hesitation in speaking of as a pedantic minister, meddled with education which he did not understand at all, and propounded a system of "payment by results;" and he had heard in that Conference of the suffering which teachers had had to endure from the mischief that one man did. He had no doubt that but for that system, many

teachers now in national schools would have risen who would have been able to show that they could have done their work in a far better way by their own methods if they had been allowed to practise them. He might say how he, a free English teacher, free to think and do as he pleased, endeavouring to convey to his class with what little enthusiasm he still had after teaching for nearly thirty years, anything that was new, good or useful, pitied gentlemen who by red tape rules were compelled to do only what they were told. He remembered two commissions of inquiry on the subject of education between twenty and thirty years ago ; one was a commission to inquire into the condition of the endowed schools, and the other was a commission to inquire into middle-class education. The commission on the endowed schools reported a state of things which might be likened to the Augean stable, which it required a Hercules to cleanse. It was a lamentable revelation, and every one who read it could only feel covered with shame. When the commission came to inquire into the condition of middle-class schools, of which they expected universal condemnation, they found that the Balaam who had been called to curse was obliged to bless, and the report of those commissions stated that there was a very large amount of private school teaching of a high order, which had taken them by surprise. Soon after those two commissions there came a general desire for improved education through England, and this was promoted by the Oxford and Cambridge middle-class examinations. When the result of those examinations came out, the middle-class teachers were far beyond the public schools in the number and quality of the candidates they passed. Since then efforts had been made to advance education by means of conferences. The present Conference was a splendid one, and he wished to be permitted personally, and on behalf of many others, to thank those who had done such noble work in calling the Conference together. Mr. Storr would remember the labour that had been taken to get up conferences year by year, and how badly they had been attended, and how difficult

it was to pay the expenses of those conferences. Nevertheless, middle-class schoolmasters took the largest share in the promotion of them, and had even been the foremost to do, and to learn what they could, in order to be able to carry something to their own schools to the advantage of their pupils. He therefore said they should take care not to attempt to crush private schools ; and it was one comfort that whether they tried to do it or not, they would not be able to do it. If they got a universal Government system of education, he for one would not put on the livery, he would do as he pleased, and many teachers throughout England would say the same, and they knew they were supported by the spirit of the English people. Parents would do as they liked with their children, and if they got a man who taught as they wished their children to be taught, they would take him rather than the State teacher, and the parents were right.

The CHAIRMAN (Lord Reay) said he was very glad to be able to call on a distinguished Belgian gentleman present, M. Couvreur, whose acquaintance with the subject was most intimate, and whose devotion to the cause of education was above all praise, and he hoped M. Couvreur would be kind enough to give to the section some account of what had recently been done in Belgium to promote a system of Secondary Education.

Mons. COUVREUR observed, that in Belgium the organization of middle-class instruction (*enseignement moyen*) raised the same difficulties and the same objections as in England. Much time would elapse before these difficulties were solved. At the same time, it appeared to him, from what he had just heard, that the middle-classes in England appreciated the value of good instruction better than they did in Belgium. He had learnt with as much surprise as satisfaction that it has been possible in England to establish anonymous societies for the organisation of schools and the instruction of youth, and that the enterprise had yielded five per cent. to the shareholders. This would not be possible in Belgium. The laws and the customs were alike

opposed to it. Attempts had, however, been made in this direction; but they had always failed, whether they emanated from private individuals who opened schools as a means of earning their livelihood, or from persons interested in the diffusion of instruction. The aid of the State or the Communes had always been found necessary. The only establishments for middle-class education which might be said to have succeeded unaided, were the boarding schools patronised by strangers, depending for their support upon pupils from abroad, or those institutions in which pupils were prepared for special superior schools. All other secular private schools had failed.

Still, absolute liberty of teaching existed in Belgium. The first comer might open a school. He was not obliged to furnish credentials of fitness for the task, or even of morality. He might have been condemned a short time previously for almost any kind of offence. This did not prevent him from following on the morrow his profession of instructor of youth. It might have been supposed that such a system would have given rise to unmeasured competition in the domain of education. But there had been no result of the kind. Private enterprise, as applied to education, had succumbed before the superior might of the Catholic Church first, and the State afterwards. These were virtually the only two forces in the field to-day. The clerical schools were not under the direction of the Church, properly so called; that is to say of priests recruited from the ranks of the nation. They were rather under the control of members of the militant orders of the Papacy, who were cosmopolitan. Thus, the Brothers of the Christian Doctrine devoted themselves more especially to the primary instruction, and the Jesuits to the higher instruction of boys. The spirit which prevailed in these institutions was opposed to all the tendencies of modern civilisation. It developed itself in the country without other counterbalancing influence than might be found in State Education. The Protestant sects were without authority for lack of adherents.

The municipalities of the great towns had been the first, after 1830, to become uneasy about the preponderance of the clerical schools, and the succumbing of private secular educational institutions. They founded colleges for boys. Cities second in importance followed their example. This system had remained in force until 1859. At this period the liberal party coming into office passed a law for the organization of middle-class instruction, which, while leaving intact the principle of liberty of teaching, aimed at creating a salutary competition with the clerical schools. But this prospect was not to the taste of the patrons of the latter. They obtained by law the restriction of the number of public schools. This advantage was not the only one which they assured to themselves. The training of teachers was a delicate question. The State had never made a point of enquiring into the capabilities or morality of those who taught in the Roman Catholic schools. But how was it to proceed for the Government Schools? In these it was necessary to be furnished with a diploma before undertaking to give instruction. And this diploma had to be awarded by juries, among which partisans of the Jesuits found a place.

The Jesuits, therefore, besides the direction of their own establishments, had a voice in the nomination of the *personnel* of the State Schools. And they were not backward in availing themselves of this advantage, above all when a clerical ministry followed upon a liberal administration.

The law of 1859 had only applied to boys. Nothing had been done hitherto for the instruction of girls. These had been constrained to seek their education at the hands of nuns of all orders, whose teaching was for the most part of a very inferior kind. Here again the municipalities of the great towns, with Brussels at their head, had taken the initiative of providing for the education of the daughters of the citizens. Hardly were these schools opened than they became the object of the most violent attacks on the part of the clergy. The most infamous calumnies were levelled from the pulpit, in the confessional, and in the organs of

the Episcopal Press, against the mistresses of the New Municipal Schools, against the pupils who frequented them, and against the parents who sent their children to them. They were refused the Sacraments of the Church, and absolution on their dying beds. Every kind of persecution had been brought into operation to destroy the competition established by secular schools. But as the Municipal Schools were good, and answered to a need, parents had resisted the pressure put upon them, and their children continued to enjoy the advantages of a good education.

In 1879 the State had taken into its hands the organization of a system of superior instruction for girls. The Government founded normal schools and augmented considerably the number of public training schools open to girls. The towns second in importance could thus in their turn enjoy the advantages hitherto reserved to the great centres of population. It was probable that as a consequence of the clerical reaction which obtained in Belgium since the elections of June all this organization would be overthrown. The Roman Catholic Church under the pretext that her right of liberty of teaching had been infringed, but in reality because she aimed at acquiring the monopoly of education, attempted to rid herself of a hampering competition. If she succeeded, it would become necessary for the Liberals to put their hands in their pockets to maintain, upon their own responsibility, the schools they had established.

The instruction of the middle classes could not be abandoned to individual efforts. Instruction was not an article of commerce like bread. Public control could not remain indifferent to it, any more than to the establishment of justice upon a sound basis. It could not admit either, that under pretext of respecting liberty of teaching, the State could be prevented from creating schools supported by the contributions of all, open to all persuasions, and of raising public instruction by their curriculum and their methods to the highest standard possible, thereby obliging the heads of private, and especially of clerical schools, to continue to perfect their own systems of instruction.

Mrs. WRIGHT (Boston, U.S.A.) said that reference had been made to education in other countries, including Russia, but she did not think that the Russian was the best example of a State system of education that could be recommended in an English Conference. She gathered from what she had heard that the term "middle-class" corresponded entirely to the great middle-class of the population in New England, and that the secondary instruction meant what they called their high school instruction. In Boston they had good examples of high school instruction entirely maintained by taxation, and the tribunal they were judged by was public opinion. It seemed to her that they contained the advantages that had been claimed by the rival methods of English instruction, and the State had done its duty. The people put their hands into their pockets in order that the State might pay the bills for the education, and the State might be trusted to do the work.

The Rev. Prebendary BRERETON said it had been hitherto thought in England that whatever people could do for themselves, it was better they should do than that the State should do it for them, and till comparatively within one generation that had been held to apply to education as much as to anything. It used to be thought the parents' duty to provide for education, but recently the State had been doing a very great deal with regard to education, advancing by tentative steps. The question how far the State should interfere with secondary instruction, and how far secondary education should be maintained by rates, really raised the whole question, not only with regard to secondary, but with regard to elementary education. It was a question whether the parents in England were paying as much as they could fairly afford to pay for elementary education, though it should not be forgotten that the parents were spending at least five times the school fee in feeding and clothing, and that the real cost of education was something very much larger than what was represented by the payment for tuition. In England they thought the first duty of a parent was to earn his own living, and maintain his child as long as that

child could not earn for himself. It was only in late years, after being enlightened by other countries, that they had come to think that in order to promote earning it was desirable that the labouring classes should be better educated. He for one felt great sympathy with that point of view, for if they could increase the power of earning they were really not interfering with the independence of the people. They did well if they taught people to look upon education in the three R's as something which was to help them to earn more in order that they might pay back the cost, which certainly they might be supposed to do, by their superior earning power. But the moment they taught them to think that they could take from their own parents' shoulders and put on to their neighbours' shoulders the burthen of educating children, they were really doing harm. He had himself, as a member of a Board of Guardians, thought it his duty to use all his influence to try to get the compulsory law of England brought into operation; but he had been very much struck with the strong reluctance felt by farmers who sat upon the Board to using undue pressure to compel a parent to take his child from work and send him to school. And when Mr. Stanley wished them to put the education of the middle classes more into local hands, they would have to deal with this very respectable prejudice of the English ratepayer—that no more money should be spent from the rates than was necessary to produce a minimum of education. He thought the tendency of increased rates would be to reduce the level of education. This was what had been so much complained of by teachers as the result of Mr. Robert Lowe's action in requiring payment by results. When money came from taxes or rates there would be a tendency to reduce the standard of education; and on that account it seemed most important that they should do all they could to encourage volunteer organization. M. Couvreur had expressed his surprise to hear that they were able to apply the combination of joint stock companies to education. He confessed he rather regretted that yesterday he had not been permitted an

opportunity of saying a few words in reply to what had been urged against his own paper in favour of boarding schools in comparison with day schools. He had no wish to disparage day schools at all, but the real question was one of cost, and he could have stated with great confidence that where sufficient capital was provided by a corporation and schools were established, they could really reduce the cost of education to a very remarkable degree. Lord Fortescue had alluded to the Devon County School. That was the first school established in England, more than twenty-five years ago, on the principles of taking the county rather than the diocese as the public ground; and holding that it would be better to ask the public to undertake the work than to ask the State. The late Duke of Bedford suggested that they should avail themselves of the Joint Stock Companies Act, and he was not quite sure that theirs was not the first registered company. He himself had the prejudice of Englishmen against mixing up the commercial principle with education; but as he said some years ago before the School Inquiries Commission, the more he watched the operation of that principle the more he felt confident that it contained a great power of good. In the first place, it relieved the schoolmaster of the burden of having to find capital. He felt sure it would be very much better if they had their full remuneration for teaching, and were not embarrassed with anxieties connected with capital. In the county school (and he believed also in the high schools for ladies) there was a restriction that not more than 5 per cent. should be paid to the shareholders. They had also taken pains to secure that the appointment of the head master should always be in the hands of a permanent body of trustees, in order to protect the independence of the teachers as much as possible. In North Devon they had been trying to produce the cheapest school possible: they charged not more than £35 a-year; and for the last fifteen years they had paid an average dividend of 3 per cent. to the shareholders after putting by all necessary reserves. He thought that pointed to the fact that a great deal more

might be done in future with private capital, applied to public education.

Mr. HANSON (Chairman of the School Management Committee of the Bradford School Board) said that the question before them was the mode of effectually getting lower middle-class education. In the large manufacturing towns what was called the lower middle-class included a very large number of persons who were he thought the worst provided with schools of any class in the kingdom. He had had the honour of belonging to the School Board from the beginning; and when he was first elected, nearly fourteen years ago, he was aware that amongst the private schools there were some good, but that some were conducted by men unsuitable for their positions. Many of the lower middle class sent their children to the elementary schools, which were then in a very imperfect condition; but those people felt that in those elementary schools there was a better provision than they could obtain in the private schools. The street in which he then lived contained about twenty houses of which the rent was about £25 or £30, and there then was only one child in that street who was sent to what was called a secondary middle-class school; the rest of the children being sent to primary or elementary schools. One of the first objects of the Board was to establish, if possible, higher elementary education. They had in Bradford a very large population of overlookers, clerks, managers, and small tradesmen, who had not facilities for educating their children. They had now in Bradford four schools, two for boys and two for girls, which were called Higher Board Schools, carrying education beyond that of the elementary school; they had met a great want in their town, taking up a great number of children who could not find efficient instruction in the lower adventure schools, and could not enter the grammar schools. The grammar school there had now been reformed, and it was very successful. In England there was a sort of class feeling amongst people in favour of sending their children where they found children of people in the same position, and they had in

their town well-to-do working and middle-class people, for whom they were doing great service. He agreed with Mr. Stanley, that a modification of the Education Act on the part of the School Board might do very much to meet the circumstances of the middle class. He thought that might be done with a little modification of the Act; and in the meantime, the School Boards might do much to meet the wants of the circumstances of the lower middle classes. They had now 1300 children in those higher schools, about as many boys as girls, and the children were picking up Latin, French, two or three sciences, mathematics, and some other subjects that were not taken in the ordinary schools. He was rather surprised at one or two things which had been said by Canon Daniel, who talked about pauperising. They took from the town of Bradford £26,000 or £27,000 a-year from the rates, and some years ago a collector of rates told him that four-fifths of the Borough rates came from the persons whose tenements were rated at above £10, that was to say, the middle and upper class people; therefore, more than £20,000 of the £26,000 or £27,000 came from the middle-class people, and they, therefore, surely had the right to send their children to the Board Schools if they thought fit. It seemed nonsense to talk about pauperising the middle classes; they might as well talk about pauperising them on account of lighting and watching and maintaining the roads. Canon Daniel talked about jobbery. He did not know whether that gentleman was on a School Board; but he rather thought that if he were on a School Board which had a good public auditor, he would find it was not so easy to job as he seemed disposed to think. He would not say a word against private schoolmasters, but it was quite clear that the lower middle classes had not good schools, and, therefore, it was the duty of the ratepayers to provide education for them. The voluntary principle had failed. The lower middle classes were not educated as they ought to be, and they had no means of getting good education unless they were helped to it by the School Board or some local body.

Professor CROMBIE said he would have preferred to

have been excused from saying anything on the question of the organization of Secondary Education in England, because he could only enunciate general principles, and those were sufficiently obvious to every member of the section. Perhaps he might be able to state from experience in Scotland, that some of the proposals in Mr. Stanley's most valuable paper had been already tested there on a somewhat smaller scale than Mr. Stanley's paper proposed. First of all, he would say it was with great regret (which he was sure would be shared by all present) that the very able and well-considered scheme of the Commissioners for Education of 1868 had been hidden so long from the public view. No doubt at the time when it first appeared it excited in England great interest, but as it did not apply specially to Scotland it was lost sight of, although the people of Scotland took a deep interest in education. He was glad that the paper would now be the means of bringing the scheme forward again, and that the many suggestions in it would now receive full consideration. He had been particularly struck with one proposal contained in the Commissioners' scheme, that of mapping out the country into districts, the educational wants of each district to be supervised by a representative council composed of those not simply belonging to the district, but he presumed also of men eminent in education, such as the *élite* of their Government Inspectors of Education—such men as Mr. Fitch, and others with whose merits he was not so well acquainted, would, he presumed, form a council of advisers to the great managing body of the district. How would that scheme work? From Scotch experience he could tell them how it had worked on a small scale. He would take the city of Edinburgh, which contained upwards of 200,000 inhabitants. The School Board of that city had the supervision not merely of the Elementary Education of the city, but the care of the Secondary or Intermediate Education in the shape of the Royal High School of Edinburgh. This great school was famous for having had in it some of the greatest men that ever adorned the highest positions in the State, and he need

only mention the case of Lord Brougham. The members of the School Board of the city were elected by the ratepayers, and it was an admirable Board in point of ability. They had educationalists of a high order upon it. It contained names which inspired perfect confidence, and under the management of the Board the High School of Edinburgh had never been in a more flourishing condition than it was at present, notwithstanding the heavy competition to which it was subjected by other schools. It seemed to him that the principle of the proposal contained in the scheme of the Commissioners had been tested and not been found wanting in the case to which he referred. He had no doubt that was the case with other School Boards, and he believed it was the case in the School Board of Glasgow, a great city with a population of 600,000, and the administration of education there was regarded as a model even in Scotland. There was no feeling of rivalry, and the School Board of Glasgow had done its duty towards the education of those entrusted to it in the most admirable manner. Some of the local School Boards in other important towns also dealt with Secondary Education. The proceedings of School Boards were reported fully in all the papers of the city : they were criticised fully in the press, and they had in the *Scotsman* a warm friend of education and a vigilant inspector of all abuses. He did not see why those experiments should not succeed when carried out on a more extensive scale in the way proposed by the Commissioners themselves. Then, they had endowed schools in Scotland, which were managed by trustees appointed under the provisions of the testator's will. There had been various complaints in many quarters about the action of the trustees, but it was unnecessary to go into that, because the Endowed Schools Commissioners were sitting, and were preparing schemes for the reformation of every endowed school, and they must wait to see how those schemes worked before they could charge them with unsuitability or with any other fault. There was one thing to be noted in regard to them, and it should be noted with some

jealousy, namely, the examination of those schools was to be entrusted to the Education Department. The Scotch Education Department consisted of several members of Government, and met, he was told, as frequently as twice a year! It was a fact, as shown from the experience of the working of the Education Department with regard to Elementary Schools, that practically the State Department consisted of one individual, the secretary for the time being, who was necessarily entrusted with the carrying out of the details. He thought what was wanted in Scotland for the purpose of removing abuses was some method more rapid than going to Parliament and sending deputations as had been done. Years would go on before the evil was remedied, and perhaps if they had a Minister of Education responsible for his own acts, liable to be called to account in Parliament, they would not have to wait so long for the reform of some abuses. Canon Daniel had referred to the possibility of jobbery creeping into the schools which were supported by the rates, all he could say was that they had never heard any charge of jobbery against any of the School Boards of Scotland. There had been differences of opinion as to the expenditure of money, because they had not a great deal of money in Scotland, and they took very great care of it, but he was entirely without fear as to any jobbery getting in if the accounts were properly audited, and if the sums proposed to be expended were properly discussed. Publicity was the great safeguard in all their Boards. There was a third class of schools in Scotland, which were confined to Edinburgh, viz., the schools of the Merchants' Company. They had been the most remarkable schools, so far as he knew, of the present century, and they took a very high position. Those schools had large endowments, the endowments of the late George Watson, a citizen of Edinburgh, who left them to found what was called an hospital, in the sense of Christ's Hospital. Those large endowments had further increased of late years, and the Merchants' Company had founded four great schools, two for girls and two for boys, and the large funds at their command enabled

them to cheapen education so much that they had pupils coming to those schools within a radius of from twenty to thirty or forty miles by railway, returning the same day. One of those schools, the one for boys, numbered 1450 pupils, and another in Queen Street for ladies had 1450 pupils. The ladies' school in George Square had 800, and the Daniel Stewart school 600. Those were schools which he could speak of from personal knowledge (as he had been for several years one of the examiners). They were worked under a Provisional Order, and how far the Endowed Schools' Commission could deal with them he did not know. In Scotland they had thus three different ways at least of dealing with secondary education, and under those three different methods education flourished. In England, apparently, they were all desirous of seeing secondary education reformed, but the difficulty was to hit upon the best means of doing it. It appeared to him that a little diversity in the conduct of secondary education in England would work as well as it had done in Scotland. There seemed to be special circumstances which would require to be dealt with. In the mining districts, he imagined, technical education might probably be greatly in demand, but in the great commercial centres they would have something in the form of the German *Real-schulen*, as affording probably the best means of instruction, and in other districts something approaching the old Grammar Schools would be required. The conclusion he had come to was that they could not have one uniform and unvaried plan of dealing with so difficult and complicated a problem as that of secondary education in so great a country as England. He thought that in view of the peculiarities of each large district they must really settle the plan which would be required in individual cases.

Mr. ROWLAND HAMILTON said that as many as 30 per cent. of the primary schools in this country obtained an average attendance of only sixty. That represented a large space thinly populated, and each of those small districts would contain perhaps not more than one or two or at most

three, children for whom the higher and middle education would be available or necessary, so that the question of economic Board Schools, where the cost of keeping a child should, as far as possible, not be more than that which he cost the parent at home, was one of very practical concern. There were in some places organizations which he thought might be held open to some branches of technical intermediate education. One he would specially name was the School of the Asylum Board at Anerly, where admirable technical classes were provided for their elder children. Although they did not wish in any way to stint gifts to those who were orphans, it did seem an anomaly that those advantages should not be open to parents who would be willing to sacrifice both the wages of the child's labour, and be prepared also to pay for its maintenance. He thought it was not a point unworthy of consideration that such schools might be made available to those who were in independent circumstances, who valued their independence, and who could make many sacrifices to secure it for their children, whereas if the full fees and the full cost of maintenance also were added, it would probably be beyond their means. He would not anticipate anything Mr. Stanley might say in reply to Canon Daniel's contention, as he was sure those matters would be most fully discussed between them ; but there were one or two remarks upon the economic aspect of the question which had been referred to by Canon Daniel on which he would venture to say a few words. His interest had for very many years been given to the social and economic side of the question. He might claim to have had something more than an amateur's experience, because at the time when the Elementary Education Act of 1870 was in course of inauguration, he had done some two years' work for the Education Department, and his whole heart was in the work. When they looked back to the state of things remedied by that Act, and he might also refer to the Endowed Schools Act of 1869, they found that the "supply and demand" theory had most unquestionably failed in various ways. The history of the Education Act

was one which he could only very briefly refer to. The system of grants in aid of existing agencies had grown up from the early part of the century. At one time those grants were given solely for building, then for an increased staff, and at the period when the well-known Commission of the Duke of Newcastle sat, the fact was brought most prominently to light that, notwithstanding the excellent reports which had been made of public elementary schools in general terms, children did not learn to read, write, or cypher. Many masters argued they *ought to be* judged by their first and second classes only. That, he must strongly urge, was to ignore the great and special function of the public elementary school. He by no means disparaged in any way higher education or intermediate education; but the one great and especial function of primary schools was to save those weak in intellect, often with wholly unintellectual surroundings, and to put them in a position in which they could maintain their place in the line of march. He could tell quite as many stories as he had heard of the way in which sharp-minded, hard-headed men, who had been thrown into the struggle of life wholly illiterate, had made good their position; though it did not follow that they would not have done very much better with some educational advantages. The argument was utterly inapplicable to the weaker and more ordinary child. But even if a lad, dull, uninventive, and not very observant, could go through his routine of copying and arithmetic, some work might be found for him; but if he was wholly illiterate and without more "mother wit" than fell to the ordinary lot, it was very hard to keep him from pauperism and crime. As regards the Endowed Schools Act, it was passed to remedy evils which had over and over again been acknowledged, but for which the Court of Chancery did not practically afford any efficient remedy. The working of the Court as regards such "Charities" had indeed been most unsatisfactory. A trustee, acting for any individual beneficiary, was held rigidly to account, and could plead neither good intentions nor "error of judgment," in case of loss to the estate, but

where the beneficiaries were the public, or the poor, no interests seem to have been regarded except those of the agents who could make their stewardship a sinecure with impunity. In some instances where the trust funds were large, action taken through the Attorney-General had led to the remedy of flagrant abuses, but in ordinary cases the costs of this remedy put it out of reach of the great majority of cases, even where abuses were palpable and notorious.

Madame DILLON said that France was essentially an official country. She had heard it said twice during the Conference that a Minister of Public Instruction had at one time said that at half-past eleven o'clock the pupils at all the public schools were studying the same matter. She did not know if it was true, but she did not think it was. It was impossible, and in any case it was not the fact at the present moment. The hours for school attendance varied in different places, and the greatest latitude was left to teachers with respect to their programmes, and their opinion was much attended to. The programme for infant schools could not be carried out; and the minister had just nominated a commission to see how it could be altered. The Ministry of Public Instruction in France was not considered a despotic institution, and every teacher, high or low, had the right of referring to the Ministry or the Director of Primary Instruction if he thought he had a grievance, and not a change was made in the personal staff without due arguing. Nobody took more interest in teachers than the Minister of Public Instruction, and those authorised to carry out his regulations.

The CHAIRMAN (Lord Reay) addressed in French M. Liard, Rector of the Academy of Caen, one of the representatives of the French Government at the Conference, and requested him to favour the section with information as to the duty undertaken by the State and the local authorities with regard to secondary education, as to the different kinds of schools which had been established, and as to the cost of those schools.

M. LIARD, who spoke in French, said :—

1. There are in France two kinds of public institutions of secondary education ; the "lycées" and the communal colleges. The law allows any private person having taken the degree of *bachelier* to open, on certain conditions, a private establishment of secondary education which may not be called either a "lycée" or a college.

The buildings of "lycées" and colleges belong to the towns ; and both the "lycées" and colleges are under the direction of the State, who appoints and exercises direct supervision over the directors and professors. But the expenses of the "lycées" are entirely borne by the State, whilst those of the communal colleges are borne by the towns. In most cases, however, and especially for the last ten years, the State bears a part of the expense in the shape of a subsidy. There is, moreover, another difference between the "lycées" and the colleges : a titular professor in a "lycée" must be an *agrégé*, whilst it is sufficient to hold a licentiate's degree to be appointed titular professor in a college.

Each "département" has, on an average, one "lycée" and four or five colleges. There are in Paris seven "lycées" and one college.

2. The secondary education given in the "lycées" and colleges is *classical* or *special*.

The classical education (for boys of 11 to 18 on an average) comprises : French language and literature, German or English, Latin, Greek, history, geography, philosophy, and the elements of mathematical, physical, and natural sciences. For the pupils who wish to acquire a highly scientific culture, and are preparing for admission to the Polytechnic School, or the scientific section of the "École Normale Supérieure" (higher training school), or the Faculties of Science, the "Collège de France," and the "Museum," there is in every "lycée" a class of "elementary mathematics," and in the most important "lycées" a class of "special mathematics" for the teaching of analytical

geometry, the higher branches of algebra, and the first elements of physical mathematics.

The aim of the *classical branch* of education is to give to students a complete general culture, and to train their intelligence, mind, and taste.

The aim of the *special branch* of education, though not exclusive, is more practical. Latin and Greek are excluded ; but as French civilisation is imbued with ideas and feelings borrowed from the Greeks and the Romans, it has been thought useful to give to the students of the special branch of education some notions of Greek and Roman history. The teaching comprises: French language and literature, living languages (German and English), history, geography, and particularly commercial geography, physical and natural science, including practical lessons in chemistry, elementary mathematics, and especially mechanical philosophy and its most usual application, and commercial accounts and book-keeping.

This kind of education was originated in 1865, M. Duruy being then Minister of Public Instruction ; it has since been developed, and now numbers as many students as the classical "side" ; most of the students being sons of manufacturers, merchants, agriculturists, peasants, and working men.

The teaching is carried on in the same "lycées" and colleges as the classical teaching, and by special professors. It has been proposed to organize for it special establishments, and this idea is daily gaining ground.

The special branch of education met at its origin with considerable prejudices, which it has overcome ; it is now firmly established, and is considered by the ministry with as much favour as the classical branch.

3. *Relations between the Institutions of Secondary Education and the Faculties.*—In order to be registered as a student in a faculty of law, it is necessary to hold a degree of *bachelier-ès-lettres* (this degree is obtained after a course of classical studies) ; and the same is required for registra-

tion in a faculty of philosophy (*lettres*) ; but for registration in a faculty of medicine, a student must be both a *bachelier-ès-lettres* and a *bachelier-ès-sciences.*

To be admitted as a student in a faculty of science, the required degree is that of *bachelier-ès-sciences* or *bachelier de l'enseignement spécial.*

The latter degree is of recent origin, and is far from conferring the privileges which public opinion would like to see it endowed with ; thus it does not entitle its holder to compete for admission to the Government schools, such as the School of St. Cyr, the Polytechnic School and the École Normale Supérieure (higher training school).

4. *Budgets of "Lycées" and Colleges.*—They are prepared every year by the head of the establishment, and successively submitted to the control of a "bureau d'administration" attached to each "lycée" or college, and of the Academical Council established in every academical chief-town. They are then approved by the Minister of Public Instruction.

They are divided under the two heads of receipts and expenditure.

The expenditure comprises (excluding the expenses for board and lodging of boarders) the emoluments of the administrative staff ; the emoluments of the professors and tutors (*maitres-répétiteurs*) fixed throughout France according to established rules ; the expenses for appliances (matériel) and teaching generally.

The receipts include roughly—(1) the fees paid by the students (these fees are very low ; in many colleges they do not exceed 60 francs (48*s.*) per annum) ; (2) the amounts paid for "purses" (scholarships) by the towns, the "départements," and the State ; (3) the subsidies granted by the State (to the "lycées") and by the towns (to the colleges). These subsidies, in the cases of certain "lycées," amount to 100,000 frs. (£4000) per annum. The subsidies granted by the State to the communal colleges are much less important ; in most cases they consist in the payment by the State of the emoluments of one or more professors.

Every year the French Chambers vote the necessary funds for the maintenance of the "lycées" and the subsidies to the colleges.

5. No "lycée" or college can be established except by a decree of the President of the Republic promulgated on the proposition of the Minister of Public Instruction.

6. *Technical Education.*—Manual labour is, since 1882, one of the compulsory subjects of primary education. It is far from being organised in all the schools, but it is organised in most of the large towns. It is also taught in the training schools for teachers. A certain number of large towns, anticipating the law, have established, some years ago, apprenticeship and professional schools. To speak only of the academical district of Caen, I may mention the apprenticeship schools of Rouen and Hâvre, the pupils remain there until they are sixteen or even seventeen years old, and when they leave, they have sufficient ability to command wages amounting to four or five francs daily. This is an excellent result, which all our efforts tend to increase.

The Ministry of Commerce has under its direction some schools of arts and manufactures of great repute, where a number of able foremen are trained. We must also mention the School of Miners, of St. Étienne.

At the head of all are the Polytechnic School, the ablest students of which compose the body of State Engineers, the School of Mines, the School of Bridges and Ways (*Ponts et Chaussées*), the Central School of Arts and Manufactures, established by private initiative, but which is now subsidized by the State, and the "Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers."

It must also be said that certain towns, such as Bordeaux, Lyon, Paris, Rouen, le Hâvre, have founded with the assistance of private persons, of the "départements," and of the Chambers of Commerce, high schools of commerce and industry.

Agriculture.—Each "département" is bound to have a professor of agriculture, who gives agricultural lectures in

the various cantons, and is a professor in the training school for teachers.

Recently there have been established in certain faculties of science, a number of "stations agronomiques," or laboratories, for the analysis of the various kinds of soil and manure, and which are now being of great service to agriculturists.

There are also in France a number of model farms, and an "*Institut agronomique.*"

The CHAIRMAN (Lord Reay) said they were extremely obliged to M. Liard for the explanations he had given. As he would not himself be able to be present in the afternoon, and as the debate was not finished, he would only say a few words on the question. The fact of his leaving what he considered his own section—that of University education—would prove his great interest. He believed at the present moment that there was no question in English education which was of greater importance than that put by Mr. Stanley, whether the educational wants of the middle class still remained a crying evil, and he had not the slightest hesitation in answering that question affirmatively. He would dismiss the whole argument of private schools by saying that—if they admitted that every private school in England was an excellent school; if they admitted that every school of a public company was an excellent school; and if they admitted that every endowed school after it had been reformed by the Commissioners was an excellent school—even then there was a great deficiency of secondary education. The question was: were the people of England to wait till there was a supply forthcoming from private sources? He distinctly denied that the people of England ought to wait. They had their trade and agriculture at this moment in a depressed condition. Why were they depressed? In some measure because they were without the education they wanted, which foreign countries like France, Germany, Belgium, and Holland, were supplying. If they took a steamer at any of our ports, and went to Rotterdam, what did they find? They found in Rotterdam several

institutions to supply secondary education, likewise up the river in towns smaller than Rotterdam. But if they travelled on an English railway and got out at every station, would they find *Real-schulen* and technical schools for their workmen, engineers, and merchants? Why were German clerks invading our offices? Because they could write foreign languages? Why were Englishmen not there? What had been done by the existing machinery to supply the growing wants of the lower middle class? They did not want so much a Minister of Education as the organizing influence of the Education Department, and they wanted what had been so well put in Mr. Stanley's paper—the creation of local areas and local boards. The question of secondary education was a question of local government, and the Local Government Bill *would create* the machinery for secondary education. He could not conceive that the lower middle class, upon whom these rates would also fall, would be disinclined to pay them. It was not proposed to give a University education. It was proposed to give an education such as would fit a man for the workshop, or would fit him to be a foreman, or a manufacturer, or a farmer, or a clerk. That is what he understood by secondary education for the lower middle class. The only question before the section was whether the want existed and how it could speedily disappear. The question was whether England was to remain in the matter of secondary education on a lower level than most foreign countries, he believed even lower than some of its own colonies. That scandal he wanted to see removed, and the sooner the better, and therefore he gave his most cordial support in principle to what Mr. Stanley had said. The problem was a local one, and Mr. Stanley had not laid down any abstract programme. Let them have as great a variety of schools as possible, both of public and of private secondary schools, but let there be no further delay in making a start. He had spoken from a sense of deep conviction, without the slightest hostility to private schools, with which he had been connected himself; and he was extremely sorry that

he must attend another section in the afternoon, and could not take any further part in the debate.

[The proceedings were adjourned for a short time.]

On resuming, the chair was taken by His Grace the Duke of BUCKINGHAM AND CHANDOS.

The Rev. C. O. TREW said he would like to say two or three words from a worker's point of view. He had the honour to be the head master of a grammar-school, which he considered took a certain place in the scale of education at the present time, as about sixty per cent. of the boys in his school came direct from elementary schools. He supposed his school would be called a very cheap school, as they offered an all-round education for the sum of £4 a year, being 2*s.* per teaching week, as compared with 9*d.* a week, the rate charged at Board schools; and his boarders paid the low price of £9 a term, there being three terms in the year. He had heard Prebendary Brereton speak, and on one or two points he was at issue with him. One was the case of companies *versus* private enterprise. His school was conducted on the private enterprise system, that was to say, it was not conducted, as some grammar schools were, on the hostel system, but he had a certain fixed salary, capitation fees, and profits on boarders. He disagreed with Prebendary Brereton, that the responsibility of capital was any drawback. He thought the mere fact of having capital in a thing must increase the interest in it, and cause one to be more or less anxious to make it a success; and if the school was not a success with one's own capital, he did not think it was at all likely to succeed when it was being worked under a company. Large towns might think that education should not retrogress, but he believed that the feeling amongst the agricultural interest was that things had gone far enough. He said it with shame, and they would scarcely believe it was the fact, that there were amongst his boys some who were taken away from school

during part of the year, or, at any rate as soon as they possibly could be, in order that they might go home and labour in the fields. Boys were kept back from school until the harvest was over, in order that they might help at home. If they went on to farms where would they find the young labourers? There were old men; but he thought the young men had disappeared to a large extent, or were rapidly disappearing. The district he represented was as flourishing an agricultural district as there was in England; producing butter and milk, which had not suffered from the depression which had prevailed; and people there were strongly in favour of not pushing on education any further. He believed there was still a great jump from the elementary to the secondary schools. In the elementary schools boys were taught splendidly what they were taught; but there was a limited number of subjects. He thought that boys should know a larger range of subjects. He had had introduced to him boys between twelve and fourteen, who had been splendidly grounded in reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography; but perhaps a great number of them knew absolutely nothing of history. The consequence was that in his school, where perhaps 40 per cent. of the boys had received an all-round education, and 60 per cent. had been educated at Board schools, nobody, except a person who had tried it, could have any idea of the difficulty of working them together which that represented. Boys should come earlier to secondary schools from the elementary schools. His school had a very fair foundation, but not enough to enable boys to go ahead to higher and better education. What they wanted was some means by which there could be scholarships offered, so that the cost to the parents at a higher school would not exceed the cost which with great difficulty they at present managed to make up. It was no good to offer an exhibition of £60 or £70 at a large school, so as to reduce the boy's expenses to £70, or even £50, when parents could only with difficulty scrape together the necessary £30 or £35 they had to pay to the school where the boys were at present. He did not see why

there should not be some means of helping on the boys of parents who had already done their best, without making them incur further expense.

Miss EDITH LUPTON thought that as a member of the Bradford School Board and manager of elementary schools, she was in a position to speak as to what Government had already done with regard to education. She believed that everybody in the Conference would agree that the question of the secondary education of the country should be considered. From the position which Mr. Stanley had taken up she might say that the Government were applying for the situation, and she thought before they decided to employ the Government, they ought to inquire what its previous character had been. All members of the Conference must be aware that there was some dissatisfaction in the country with reference to the manner of conducting primary education. Mr. Stanley, in the most seductive manner had promised them Government help without Government interference in secondary schools; and as to economy, he had said that they might have secondary Government schools with a twopenny rate. The Liberal Government were known to be very sanguine, and even if present things were wrong, the Government were always to be right in the future. If a member of the Liberal party talked to them about a twopenny rate for secondary education in the face of the rates of 8*d.*, 10*d.*, 1*s.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* for elementary education in the country, she thought he must be very sanguine. When the Elementary Education Acts were passed, 3*d.* was the limit which was fixed by Mr. Forster and other people, for the elementary rate; but they had not kept to that. Then they were told that if the Government interfered in secondary education it would be to give a grant, and that they would not otherwise interfere. But was it possible the Government would not interfere? The present elementary schools were practically entirely under Government control. It was not now in our towns elementary education conducted by the people, but it was elementary education conducted by the Govern-

ment. The Government fixed a rigid code which each and every town in the country must comply with, and they could not understand that any town or district could want any modification of that rule. On the previous day, when referring to the effect of the Government system of examinations, she had given Bradford as an example of a town which wanted peculiar treatment with regard to the examination of children, and she had shewn how the Government system worked in Bradford. Mr. Fitch, the Government Inspector, said he had not observed the same thing in London, and that therefore she must be wrong in her statements as to what occurred at Bradford, but it was in Bradford that modification was wanted not in London. Although it was very interesting to know what was being done in America, France, and other countries, they must remember that England was not exactly in their position. In America there were no vested interests. In France, the question between religious education and secular education had been disposed of by the suppression of religious education, and the Government had established a purely secular education. In England, the people supported the principle of voluntary and religious education, and England would never consent to have that put a stop to. Any system of Government secondary education which was established, must come into constant collision with the educational bodies already established. From what Mr. Stanley had said, she believed he was inclined to think that there would be all friendship and no quarrelling, and that all would be able to work smoothly together ; but what had been the way in which the Government had worked with the elementary schools? No election took place for the School Board without the most vehement antagonism, and education was lost sight of in political and religious differences. When first the Education Act was started, the School Boards were divided between the denominational and undenominational ; those who wished for religious instruction and those who did not. Denominational and undenominational had been translated into Liberal and Conservative, and all

the elections were now on a political basis, which was most injurious to education. The best interests of the children were lost sight of in the consideration of political parties, and if the Government got into secondary schools, the same injurious effects would follow. If a powerful Government got its hands upon the schools would they not feel that its hands were there? She knew they would, and that they would feel the weight and power of the political influence behind. She warned people not to allow the secondary education of the country to fall into the hands of the Government. The town of Bradford was by no means satisfied with the way education was now conducted by the Government, and the people considered they were not getting what they wanted, and she thought there was no doubt that the next School Board elections and Imperial elections would show what the temper of the people was. The English were a free people, accustomed to free institutions, and she deeply sympathised with those gentlemen who called for free trade in education. She did not think any system was good which interfered with the free and intellectual aspirations of the people. The payment by results introduced by the Government checked all the nobler parts of the intellect. Government interference meant an apotheosis of expensive mediocrity. The Government made one standard for every town, whatever the industrial conditions of the people. If people in Bradford had known how the regulations would have worked they would never have had a school board. They had been promised that education should be cheap, but it was dear. The fees were as high as they had ever been, with rates and taxes in addition, and it cost them besides, health and happiness. Her own belief was that if the Government forced their interference on people, it would end in the destruction of true educational feeling throughout the country.

Mr. MACKNIGHT (Advocate, Edinburgh) said the question before the Section was whether secondary education should be paid from the rates or should be provided by voluntary or private sources. It was very desirable to know what the

experience of other countries had been, and as he was a Scotchman he wished to speak of the result of his experience in Scotland. After the Reformation in 1560 they were the first country that established a system of education. It was not at that date absolutely compulsory, but it was earnestly pressed upon the parents and the children that they should educate, and it was universally responded to. The result was that in Scotland from 1560 to 1870 they had a general and universal system of education, but it was not absolutely compulsory. In 1870 the present Education Act was passed, by which it was made imperative and compulsory upon parents to send their children to school. It was found that there had grown up in the country through emigration, particularly from Ireland, a great disposition on the part of many parents not to educate their children, but to keep them from school, and in many cases, as had happened in England, drunken parents were living upon the work of their children. That was put an end to, and elementary education in Scotland was now compulsory. They had found the benefit of having the compulsory power, and the result of the experience of Scotland had been to show that elementary education ought to be universal and compulsory. With regard to secondary education that was a totally different question, but even some men of eminence were so much enamoured of its being made compulsory that they wished to get power to establish secondary schools throughout the country, at the expense of the ratepayers. That was a proposition strongly condemned by public opinion in Scotland, and they were in a position to know it practically, which was the best way of knowing a thing. In Scotland, under the compulsory Education Act, they had found that the rates upon property were enormous. The rates were, in the first place, levied upon proprietors and occupiers of property and upon parents who did not happen to be proprietors, and in the Highlands, which formed a large proportion of Scotland, they found the people so sparsely spread that the rate had actually become a serious grievance, amounting, in

many Highland parishes, to about six or seven shillings in the pound. In the first place the School Boards had in many cases built too expensive schools, and in many cases had laid out too much upon ornament, and the result had been serious complaint; and in many Highland districts the parents of the poorer class were complaining very much of the incidence of the rate. If that was the case it would be understood with what dissatisfaction public opinion in Scotland viewed the proposal of some educationalists to get secondary education put upon the rates in addition to the existing school rate. How were they situated in other respects? They happened to have several large and wealthy endowments, and the Heriots Hospital in Edinburgh possessed a revenue of £26,000 or £27,000 a year. That was devoted entirely by the will of the founder to the education of the poorer inhabitants of Edinburgh, the burgesses of Edinburgh. There was a great cry by certain educationalists to take possession of a large portion of those private funds and devote the money to the promotion of secondary education. That was very considerably condemned in Scotland. They had had an endowed school commission, and the commissioners were at present preparing schemes by which they proposed to devote a portion of those revenues to the purposes of secondary education. That would be a way of obviating a great question of expense, if it were ultimately decided that endowments could be taken from private sources for the promotion of boys from elementary schools, to encourage them to go on with a professional and technical education. There were also in England large endowments which had been shamefully perverted from their original purposes, and one of the most useful acts of Lord Brougham was to get a Parliamentary return of those vast endowments in England, to show Parliament how grossly those endowments had been abused in England, and how impossible it was to recover them. Although Lord Brougham did that in 1821 or 1822, no effectual remedy had yet been applied, and many of those endowments in England had gone to private purposes, and no

portion of the revenues were applied to the purposes of education, for which they were intended. He did not believe that Scotland would ever agree to have an additional education rate for the purpose of secondary education. Supposing they had a number of parents who told them they did not want their children to be educated, as they had in many parts of the country, that could not be admitted as an argument why people should bring up their children in the grossest ignorance. The State said they would not permit such a thing, but would compel people to give reasonable education to their children. It was a difficult thing when the State proposed to assess them for technical or professional education, because it came then to be a sort of persecution. For instance, if he had enough to do to educate his family, and was called upon to pay for secondary education for his neighbour's children, there would be great hardship and injustice in that. But if it was intended to devote public endowments to that purpose, and Parliament chose, owing to abuses of those endowments, to change them, and to devote them to purposes of secondary education, that was a just and very proper exercise of authority on the part of Parliament. Still the question remained whether there was a great necessity for secondary education in England, and there was always the question how it was to be done. The object might be a very good one, but the means taken might be very bad. The question was, supposing it was a good thing for the country to have secondary education, how should it be obtained and from what source should it be got? They were not entitled to compel people to do a thing which they were not absolutely obliged to do, and if it was wrong in principle, which he held it to be. Was it just or fair that a parent who had been compelled to give elementary education to his children, should also be taxed for the secondary or professional education of his neighbour's children? It seemed to him perfectly monstrous. That was the experience of Scotland. They had certainly been the first educated people in Europe, but they had always

kept clear of the question of secondary education. In many cases their elementary schools gave a higher instruction in Latin and Greek, but still that was a matter which the parents wished, and it could be done, because the elementary schools in Scotland were started at the expense of the property of Scotland. With reference to the great question of how and from what source secondary education should be paid for in England, he was entirely opposed to the idea of laying that expense upon the ratepayers.

Mr. STORR (Merchant Taylors' School) said it seemed to him, after listening to Canon Daniel's very able paper, that most of the objections he made to Mr. Stanley's scheme were objections which applied equally to primary education, and that most of the points he had argued upon had already been argued out in the case of primary education, and had been generally answered against Canon Daniel. That did not apply to those who considered that primary education should be conducted on the same system as the Poor Law relief, and that they must reduce it to a minimum, and keep strictly to the three R's. If Canon Daniel upheld that principle, then it was true that he had a good case, but he was sure Canon Daniel did not, and would not wish to put any such limits on primary education. They had heard that morning the opinion of a lady from Bradford, but he had heard other ladies and gentlemen who represented Bradford. He knew something of Bradford himself, and from his small experience, and from what he had seen of the leading educationalists there, and from what he had seen personally from examining the schools, he thought that Bradford was one of the most advanced towns in England. He thought he might say without any opposition, that the people of Bradford had shown their approval in every way they could of the higher elementary schools—of schools charging the maximum permissible fee of 9*d.* a week. They could not draw any hard-and-fast line between that and secondary education. Those schools were giving the rudiments of technical instruction, and if those were primary schools,

had not the Government already acknowledged the principle that they were to go somewhat further than simple primary education? His main point was that the secondary schools as they existed in England did not supply the want of the country, and he would like to hear any one who held an opposite opinion maintain that at the present moment secondary schools had satisfied the requirements of England. He was somewhat surprised to hear Canon Daniel bring forward the argument which had been so largely used about primary education, the pauperisation argument. They had heard in that very section a gentleman from America give his experience of free schools and free universities, and his evidence was all the more valuable because he admitted that in American education what he regretted most was the absence of religious education. Yet in spite of this he said that he was bound to state that free education from the primary schools to the universities did not pauperise the nation, and that it was as highly appreciated in such institutions as the John Hopkins University as education for which £200 or £300 a year was paid at Eton, Oxford, or Cambridge. Then Canon Daniel, if he followed his argument, said he would leave it to time, and that want would supply itself, but he doubted if it was a question of time. Were they to wait, for instance, another 100 years to get a satisfactory system of secondary education? Canon Daniel had great faith in companies. He himself thought that companies in one way had done a very great work. The nation was very far behind in girls' education, and the Girls' Public Day School Company had supplied an enormous want. Whether a Boys' Public School Company on similar lines would be found equally successful yet remained to be proved. Canon Daniel told them that the Church School Company had started six or seven schools, but it was to be doubted whether the fees which middle-class parents could afford to pay that company would enable the payment of a 5 per cent. dividend. The girls' schools appealed to a higher class, and in their case there was no competition with endowed schools. Then

came the great question whether it was possible to have State initiation without State interference. For his part he believed it was, and he thought that there, again, he might go back to primary education and say that the question there had been solved. They all knew that private societies like the National Society, when first Mr. Forster's bill was introduced, said that religious schools would be stopped and that the Board would devour them. Now had not the two found in primary education a *modus vivendi?* Had they not actually increased at the same time that the board schools had been established all over the country? He wanted the Government to do what they had done in the case of primary schools, which was to say if there were a sufficient number of inhabitants in any town or district who had not a secondary school, such a school should be founded in the district. He thought that Mr. Stanley had shown in his paper it was perfectly possible to have the initiation of the Government without necessarily any Government interference or control. He was strongly in favour of municipal regulation of schools as opposed to State regulation. How far the Government should be able in extreme cases, where a school was not doing its duty, to interfere was, he thought, a minor point. He should invite Mr. Stanley, when he answered, to be a little more explicit about the formation of his council, as that was an important point. The councils, even the remodelled councils of some of the great schools, had not proved so eminently satisfactory, he thought Mr. Stanley would allow, in the case of a school with which he was acquainted. His main point was that the Government could initiate schools, could require schools to be founded, just as they had heard so ably explained to them that morning, that any town in France might make a request for a *lycée*, or a college, that request going before the central council, and if they thought there was a case, the council granting the *lycée* or college. Should they not have the same thing in England? They heard France quoted again and again as the country of red tape, the country of

doctrinaires, and he was very glad to hear exploded, he hoped for good, the famous story of the Minister and the Clock.

Mr. SONNENSCHEIN said that on several points of detail he differed from Canon Daniel, but in the main he sympathised with him. A remark was made in Mr. Stanley's paper, alluding to the great improvement that had taken place in elementary schools. He did not deny that some improvement had taken place, but what he did most emphatically deny was that a great improvement had taken place. He quite agreed with the expression used as to the result of the Government action being an apotheosis of expensive mediocrity. That was truly the case. He had described to Professor Stoy, of Jena, to M. Liard, and several other foreigners, as fully as he possibly could the system of payment by result, and they all unanimously condemned it. That same system was still persisted in. But he could refer them to Professor Thorold Rogers' 'Six Centuries of Work and Wages,' p. 555, in which he spoke strongly of the inconsistency of payment by results. If the Government gave the secondary schools a subvention, it must be done on either one of two systems. They must either give subventions on the Continental System, and simply make good the deficits in the annual budget of the schools without examination of the results, or they must adhere to the English System of payment by results. The first they would not and could not do, for, as Mr. Fitch had once told him very justly, Government would always take care that for every shilling they paid they got twelvepennyworth of work, and as examination of results was the only test the Department believed in, they would certainly not abandon it; nor could they do so without jeopardising their present *régime;* but if they introduced into secondary schools payment by results and their Government Standards, they would, no doubt, extinguish the incurably bad schools, they would also improve the *stratum* of schools next above these, but they would depress the good and the best schools to an inferior level, and on the whole greatly and permanently

injure secondary education. He, for one, was determined, if an inspector entered his school, to cram their absurd standards down his throat, to expel him and to close his school.

Mr. TENNANT was sure that every one would appreciate the motive which Mr. Stanley had in endeavouring to improve the secondary education of the country. The fact that the Government had already interfered, to a large extent, in the primary education of the country set the precedent, which rendered it almost necessary that the great question, whether the State should undertake the secondary education of the country, should come up for discussion. If it could be shown that the same cause existed for the State interfering in the secondary education that there was with regard to primary education, it was no doubt a considerable one. The reason why the State interfered in primary education was that it was found there were a large number of children of parents who were unable to give the education. If it could be shown that in the middle class the mass of people were unable to give secondary education to their children, there was no doubt whatever that the State should assume the same responsibility towards those children that it had assumed towards the children under the primary education system. So far as he could see, that movement was entirely wanting. He took it the middle classes of the country were able to give the education to their children which they required, and the whole gist of Mr. Stanley's argument turned upon that question. It was not for the State to step in and say that because certain parents were neglectful of their duty, although capable of performing it, the State should undertake the duty. If parents were unable to perform the duty, that was an excuse for the State undertaking it. But if the middle classes of the country were capable, and they certainly were capable with the assistance of the endowments which might be appropriated to the purpose, of providing the education, then it seemed to him there was no cause for direct interference by the Government. He knew nothing

more absurd than the existing arrangements of the Government with regard to the education of children, and the times at which they left school. If children could pass the fourth standard at ten years, they were permitted to go to work, but those were the very children who ought to continue their education. The state of the education of the child ought to have nothing to do with leaving school. The clever child ought to be kept in school till the proper age, till ten during the whole day, and half time up to thirteen, and that ought to apply, not simply to clever children, but also to ignorant children. The Government, however, had said that the stupid children should be kept in school, and the clever children should be turned out. In the British and Foreign School with which he was connected, in consequence of the arrangements of the Government, children left school a great deal too early, because they were told that if they were good children, and got well forward in their standard, they might have the enormous privilege of going away from school. He thought there was nothing whatever to show that the interference of the Government in secondary schools would produce the benefits that it was alleged it would do. He thought that the ridiculous arrangements at present existing in primary schools would most undoubtedly be imported by the Government into secondary schools. He had a son who had been engaged several years in connection with the lace business in Nottingham, and within the last two years he had gone to Saxony, where the system of State education was very perfect. He believed that of all the men from Saxony who were in the German army at the time of the last war, there was only one who could not read and write well. But his son said that a Saxon workman could not be compared to an English workman, the latter being incomparably superior. As a matter of fact, the Saxon workman was a machine who was drilled down to a Government type, and instead of being made better, as might be expected from his educational advantages, his education had not produced the result which might have been expected.

Dr. WORMELL said the phrase, Government interference, had been used a good many times, and he thought they were nearly all agreed that they did not want Government interference. Aid was required to extend, strengthen, and improve the existing machinery, but not such interference as would check or destroy the efforts of the many institutions that were doing excellent work. What was the kind of help that the Government should render at the present moment in connection with secondary education? There was a great difference in principle between the relation of the Government to elementary education and to secondary education. The system of elementary education was constructed on the hypothesis that there were parents too poor to purchase education at its full cost, and also parents who were indifferent with regard to education, and who had to be compelled to send their children to school. The axiom which ought to lie at the base of all reasoning, action, and legislation with regard to secondary education, was that where parents had the intelligence and means to select and pay for a suitable and efficient education, the responsibility rested with the parents. Where there was responsibility there was also privilege; and the parents should have the privilege of deciding what should be the character of the education their children should receive. Had anything been done for secondary and higher education in this country, and, if so, what had done it? Were there not important and excellent public schools, many good endowed schools, and also good private schools? Now what had made that system of good schools? The enterprise and the general intelligence of the educated part of the community. And was that intelligence less now than it was formerly? Could it be depended upon less now than at previous times in the history of the country? Undoubtedly, education in all ranks was of a higher, better, and more varied character now than it used to be, and it was more widely diffused, and they should have greater confidence than at any previous time in the ability of that higher intelligence to provide for and to direct the secondary

and higher education of the country. But the intelligent parent required certain aid and protection against deception, to enable him to use his judgment aright, and that was the point he wished to draw particular attention to. The Government alone could give the intelligent parent the necessary information and protection. He had to admit, that in spite of a strong desire to know more about the state of the education of the country, that he was profoundly ignorant of the methods pursued in the best schools in the country, and in the relation of those schools to one another; and it was almost impossible for him, with the keenest desire, to penetrate the veil. If he visited the school of a neighbour, the chances were that he would be received as if he had come to spy out the nakedness of the land. If a schoolmaster found it so difficult to get information of this kind, the ordinary parent must find it impossible. Was not this what they wanted from the Government at the present time? The Government might begin by taking such information as might be volunteered by schools, and having tested its accuracy, disseminate it through the country. It should not be given in Blue Books collected in a great mass by a Commission once in ten years, but in monthly or quarterly reports. To give that information the Government would be obliged to inspect and examine schools, and that would involve cost. He left it to the politicians to say whether it was more desirable that the funds necessary should come from the Imperial Exchequer or the rates. Inspection and examination of schools should become general. If the Conference, by asking the question, why the best professional ability and experience in the examination of schools should be restricted to elementary schools, should lead to the destruction of the monopoly, it would be a result well worth the sitting of the Conference. In order to organise the secondary and higher education of the country, the first step was to see what the resources of the country were in regard to that education. There were yet charities and endowments to be utilised, and philanthropy was not yet dead, as Birmingham, Sheffield, Notting-

ham, and Liverpool had lately proved. He would refer to one particular case in illustration. The newly appointed trustees of the Mitchell Charity in the City of London had lately begun work. One of their first efforts was to establish a series of scholarships extending from the elementary schools to the university. For this purpose they needed information, and the difficulty of getting it was immense. They had at last succeeded in arranging a series of schools, so that A, the elementary, sent scholars to B; B was willing to take them from A, and to hand them over to C; C was willing to take them from B, and to pass them on, and so right up to the university. That, to his mind, was the first attempt that had really been made to organize the secondary and higher education of the country. The building in which the Conference was assembled was a scientific university to which boys from the elementary schools would be gradually lifted, passing through a middle-class school and the Finsbury Technical College, and having altogether a six years' course by means of the Mitchell scholarships.

Mr. ANDRESEN said they had heard Mr. Sonnenschein, who reported from the south, and he would bring one word from the north of Germany. He had not had the pleasure of hearing Mr. Stanley's address, but he should say the Government must look upon the educational means of a country as a whole. He would not call the officer who visited the schools an inspector, but would give him the same name that was given to him in Germany, namely Schulrath. The Schulrath was appointed by the Government, and everywhere he visited the schools, each master gave a special lesson before an audience. That was a feast day. It was not such an examination as took place in this country, where the little urchins were taken and examined one by one. That was torture to little children, and was not the right thing. The visitation should be the test of the master, who should show what he could do, and anyone who could read faces, and understood work, would soon see whether the master knew what he was about or not.

That was the only kind of inspection or examination which could do good, and he thought that all good schools should be examined, and that public schools should not be exempt.

(The Duke of BUCKINGHAM AND CHANDOS vacated the chair, which was then taken by Mr. FITCH.)

Professor STOY (Jena), who addressed the section in German, said :—The gentlemen who have spoken before me will kindly allow me to add a few words in support of their views.

1. From a pedagogic point of view the *absolute rule* of the State over the school must be rejected. For our children do not belong to the State only, as in the republics of classical antiquity, but they are justly claimed as well by the family and the parish.

2. The State will always be more or less inclined to treat the young as instruments subservient to political interests ; consequently it only directs, ordains, and demands that certain accomplishments required for its purposes should be attained at.

3. But neither are schools *banausic* workshops, nor are teachers drill-masters and overseers.

4. The premiums granted by the Governments for educational attainments, not unlike the mystic well in fairy tale turning into flint all that drank of it, blights and cramps the hearts as well of the teachers as of the children.

Oberschulrath Dr. VON SALLWÜRK said he had the honour of being a German Schulrath, and he felt obliged to refer in a few words to what his friend, Professor Stoy, had said. He did not believe when he went to inspect a school that it was a feast for the school, as had been said in a previous address, but nevertheless he could not find that it was a torture. He was of opinion that if a Government chose its Inspectors out of the best pedagogues of the country, these Inspectors, being possessed themselves of the true principles of a sound pedagogy, would beware of suppressing individuality, instead of encouraging and leading it to the right

way. In that manner he believed there would be no danger for the freedom of education from Governmental inspection.

The Rev. Canon DANIEL in replying to the observations of the various speakers, said that the first remark he had to make was that the great difference between Mr. Stanley and himself was not as to whether secondary education needed improvement in this country. About that point they were agreed. He did not think they had enough machinery for the purposes of secondary education, nor did he think that the secondary education given was as good as they could wish, but they differed on this point, as to how the deficiency should be supplied. Was it to be by compulsory co-operation or by voluntary co-operation? Mr. Stanley was in favour of compulsory co-operation, and said that a rate should be levied to which all men should contribute, whether they approved of the system or not, whether they derived any benefit from the system or not. He himself was against that, and was in favour of persons contributing to secondary education in proportion to the benefits they derived from it. In the cases of the poor a different principle stepped in, and there indeed all classes were taxed for the benefit of one class. But when they came to the middle class, they had to deal with a totally different condition of things. They had there people who could pay for their own education, and why should they not be permitted the extraordinary privilege of doing it? They could pay and were willing to pay, but were not to be allowed to pay; while other people were compelled to pay in support of a system which they did not approve of, and the advantages of which they could not utilise. That was wholly unreasonable. Mr. Stanley seemed to forget that the report of the Commissioners came out in 1868, and that they were now living in 1884. The whole object of his paper was to carry out the recommendations made in 1868. Since then the Act of 1870 had been passed. The elementary schools had been provided for, and educational charities which used to be employed for elementary education, were now liberated, and could be applied to the purposes of middle-class

education. They had had educational companies established, and that was a great event in the history of education which did not seem to have been recognised by the majority of previous speakers. There was a great principle of co-operation, which had come to the front within the last twenty years, and why should they not take advantage of it, and draw into the service of secondary education the large amount of capital lying idle in the country and only waiting to be employed. With regard to the dissatisfaction of the lower and middle class, Mr. Stanley said they must have secondary board schools because the lower middle class were dissatisfied. Admit that they were: if a person was dissatisfied was that a reason why injustice should be done? Suppose they satisfied the lower middle class, would not the class immediately above use the same argument, and then the class above that, until they had at last the House of Peers claiming that their children should be educated at the public expense. It would be necessary to settle the question whether in any particular district the existing machinery for secondary education was adequate. Was it sufficient, was it efficient, was it satisfactory? The census would tell them whether it was sufficient, but the census would not tell them whether it was efficient. The third point that the board would have to satisfy was, whether the education was satisfactory, and that was a point they had had to settle on the London School Board, and no doubt on other school boards in the country. Was the existing education satisfactory? In the case of London, where there were already large numbers of schools in existence, Roman Catholic Schools, Church of England Schools, Denominational Schools of various kinds, he had contended on the board that the accommodation provided by those schools ought to be recognised. What was the answer? It was that the education was not satisfactory; that Protestants could not send their children to Roman Catholic Schools, and that Roman Catholics could not send their children to Protestant Schools. It was said that certain schools were High Church schools, and that the people

of the neighbourhood could not be forced to attend those schools. School after school was, in this way, blotted out by the London School Board, because it did not give an education which that Board in its supremacy considered satisfactory. They would have just the same difficulties to contend with respecting secondary schools. There were schools already in existence, and the Boards proposed by Mr. Stanley would not recognise them, because it would be contended that the education they gave was not of a satisfactory character, and that the parents of children could not avail themselves of it. Mr. Stanley had protected himself against the charge of extravagance, and said that the School Board rate should not exceed 4*d.* Mr. Stanley knew what their experience had been with regard to elementary education. They had been told that the School Board rate should not exceed 4*d.*, but in some parts of the country it reached 3*s.* or 4*s.*, and the gentlemen from Scotland said it was 6*s.* or 7*s.* It was ridiculous (Mr. Stanley would pardon him for saying so) to attempt to fix any limit of that kind. It was like Mrs. Partington standing by the sea-side and attempting to keep out the waves of the Atlantic with her besom. If the rates only contributed 4*d.* the State would have to contribute the rest; and if the State contributed to any extent the State would insist upon State control, State regulations, State everything. The whole tendency of State legislation was to crush out all local action, to deal with Boards as small things, and to deal with teachers as something less. He was sorry Lord Reay was not there, and thought it was a great pity he should fire a parting shot and not wait for people to have an opportunity to return his bullet. He would like to ask Lord Reay if he had been to London, and whether he had inquired into the secondary schools all over the country. He had met people who had been to Hamburgh, Bremen, Rotterdam, and seen the show schools in those places, and these people were apt to say, "They do these things better abroad," but were ignorant of what was being done at home. Had Lord Reay been to Miss Buss's school?

The Hon. LYULPH STANLEY :—He is one of its directors.

The Rev. Canon DANIEL said he was astonished to hear it, and he challenged comparison between foreign schools and their own High Schools. He was not ashamed of what had been done in England, and he doubted whether schools in any part of the world could bear comparison with the best high schools in this country. With reference to what had been said about the possibility of jobbery in connection with School Boards, his contention was that in spending other people's money Boards were not so careful as they were in spending their own money. There was a temptation to extravagance. They did not look to little losses or little gains. Then there was a temptation lest the machinery of School Boards should be used for other purposes than education. It had been stated he ought not to have said anything about pauperising the middle class. If he did not support his child, and the State supported it for him, or if the State contributed to its support, he was pauperised more or less to that extent. A pauper was a person who was maintained, or partially maintained, at the expense of the community, and, therefore, if a child were fed with mental food, that is, at the expense of the community, he was in the same position as if he were fed with bodily food, and to that extent he was pauperised. If a country provided for the whole education of the people then no doubt all classes might receive the benefit of that public education without being pauperised. Evidently they were becoming rapidly demoralised, and people who would have been ashamed to have their children educated at public expense twenty years ago were prepared to be pauperised to that extent now. He could not help admiring the gentleman who was chairman of a School Board and who said they had no secondary schools under his Board, but that they maintained high board schools in which secondary education was given. He had been told that companies had done good work, but that they had not overtaken the need. He wished to point out that the work of these companies would increase in geometrical ratio. The more they suc-

ceeded the more they would succeed, and the greater would be the number of schools they would establish.

The Hon. LYULPH STANLEY, M.P., said that in summing up the discussion he would begin with the word almost ringing in the ears of the meeting when Canon Daniel sat down, which was that the middle class and people requiring secondary education in this country would be pauperised by a State system. That argument came naturally enough from Canon Daniel, who, with those who acted with him, had always coupled the School Board system with the Poor Law, but he (Mr. Stanley) had always contended that a public system of elementary education had nothing pauperising about it, but that it was a great co-operative effort of the nation and the individuals in the nation to establish something for the good of all at the expense of all according to their means. The only justification for any expenditure of public money either on primary education, secondary education, the police, the army, or anything, was that the expenditure was for the good of the country as a whole, and the argument that people had to pay for what they did not like applied to the Quaker who had to pay for the army. The nation first of all made up its mind for certain expenditure as being for the good of the whole, and then determines how, either by general or local taxes, the money shall be raised for that purpose. The nation were not going to ask each individual minority whether they liked certain expenditure or not. It had been contended by the dissenters that because they did not like the Established Church it was very unjust that the tithes from their land should go to it, but he did not think that the most reasonable advocates of disestablishment would recognise the force of that argument. With regard to the organization of secondary education, that it was a matter of public moment and interest was admitted, and it was said that recourse might be had to the old endowments ; but those old endowments being obviously inadequate in amount, and unequally distributed in area, it was necessary that they should have a complete system, and that

they should call in the aid of some form of taxation. Endowments were as much national property as the money that came from taxation. Endowments were no doubt recognised as a local national property, and the fact that these endowments had been diverted from one church to another, and from one object to another, had most emphatically asserted their national character. Therefore he said that any person who derived support and education from endowments was, if there was any force in the argument, as much a pauper as another who living in a town where there were no endowments enjoyed secondary education from the rates. If a burgess of Bedford, living in a town with a large and valuable endowment, took advantage of that trust, and obtained for £10 an education worth £20 a year, he was as much pauperised as if living in a town like Birmingham or Manchester, he were to be provided with higher education by the town out of the rate. He thought Canon Daniel said he saw at the end of a long vista of paupers the House of Lords coming to the workhouse (as he might express it) by receiving its education at the expense of the people. If there was any class in the country who were paupers in that sense it was the upper class, and the House of Lords, and the landed gentry who took at Eton, Harrow, Oxford, or Cambridge, the vast endowments left by the past to the present. To what class were those appropriated? They were appropriated to the upper class, including the House of Lords. As he had said in his opening remarks he was sorry for the House of Lords, because he thought they had not got much profit out of their pauper allowance. It was found, unfortunately, that the greater the endowments the greater was the tendency for it to be annexed by the upper classes, and the aristocracy, who had gone to these schools with their habits of extravagance and self-indulgence, and had made them fashionable and expensive, and nobody had benefited. The nation had lost a splendid endowment for the advances of education, and the House of Lords had been pauperised, according to Canon Daniel. Canon Daniel said the principle of educational companies had

not been sufficiently recognised. He had recognised them distinctly, and referred, in his opening paper, to the splendid work of the Girls' Public Day School Company, Limited. He knew a little about the work of a Day School Company, and considered it was an illustration of what could be done, and what could not be done, by such companies. They had done very good work in two or three respects, giving very good education, which would come within the reach of some of the people who desired to educate their children. When they compared the cost of that education in England with what it was got for on the Continent, they saw that £12 or £15 a-year charged at the day schools for girls was very much beyond the price paid abroad. The Girls' Day School had been able to found schools and make them successful, but only on a small scale compared with the wants of the country. They had a little more than 5000 in the schools. They had tried once or twice to extend their operations by charging a lower fee in what they called their middle school, and in the small towns, where they had had small schools, they had in both cases been unsuccessful. He did not mean educationally, but from the point of view of the interest of the Company. Private effort of that sort was limited by commercial considerations. The Girls' Day School Company, though in one sense a commercial undertaking, were desirous of working from an educational point of view, and they never declared a dividend of more than 5 per cent., but they were obliged to bear commercial considerations in mind, and could not open a school in a town where they would not get 100 girls, and were, therefore, not justified in establishing a school. What the Girls' Day School Company had done had proved the great advantage of what he dwelt upon in his opening paper, of a governing body covering a sufficient area and having a good many schools, because a governing body that managed only one school was the slave of its own teachers, but a governing body which managed ten or twelve schools saw what the best teachers could do, and had a standard for the other teachers. One or two speakers had pointed out

that there were in this question two difficulties to contend with, and they were the same difficulties which were raised before the Elementary Education Act was passed. One was the denominational difficulty, the reluctance of particular denominations to surrender the control of the education of the young to a common national authority. A great deal of the opposition they would have to encounter in promoting any national system of secondary education had for years stopped their progress in establishing a system of primary education. The next difficulty was the opposition of persons connected with private schools, who feared that the profits of their business would be interfered with. He was very anxious to do justice to existing private schools, and he would correct a misapprehension of Canon Daniel's. He never proposed that the local school authority should be the judge of the efficiency or of the suitability of the schools it was to supplement. He distinctly said that the most impartial party was the Educational Department, or some department which might be created *ad hoc*. The third difficulty they would have was one they had met with as to primary education—the great fear of the ratepayer. When he heard Dr. Wormell, he could not help thinking of a celebrated speech which was once made at the Mansion House by the Rev. Wm. Rogers, Rector of Bishopsgate. He said that people came to him and talked about the theological difficulty, and about economy; and he replied, "Hang theology! hang economy! Let us get to work." He would say that unless they had something of the spirit of William Rogers and determined to get to work they would never do anything. He was very sorry to hear Canon Daniel speak in the way he did of education resembling trade, and he spoke as if the best schools were carried on in the way of private trade. He himself thought that the teacher's mind should be kept away from the thought of making an extra £10 or £100 out of his school. The teacher should be in a position of reasonable comfort and independence, and his mind should be bent upon education alone. He would wish to ask

Canon Daniel whether he did not think that mischief resulted from the system sometimes followed in Lancashire of farming a school to a teacher, which was one of those pestilent devices to produce apparent results and earn money with the minimum of education. They got some strong-minded masters who paid assistants very low wages; they were up to all sorts of tricks with the Government examination, and they turned out some rough and ready work; but it was a degrading system to apply to elementary or to secondary education. He did not think any one had challenged the fact he brought forward as to the absolute absence of provision of secondary education in England. Prebendary Brereton had spoken of the Devonshire County School, which had 150 boys in it, but the county had 400,000 inhabitants, and those figures were a miserable confession of total failure. According to the figures of the Endowed School Commissioners, they ought in Devonshire, with a population of 400,000, to have upwards of 6000 children under secondary instruction. Somebody had stated that in parts of Germany there were fifty in 1000 under secondary instruction, but he must say that he felt inclined to doubt those figures, and would like proof before he gave them full credence. They had nothing to do with the evils of the code and the possibility of scandals. He was in favour of State aid, but desired to have the main management and control locally. It was possible to frame an Act of Parliament which should limit State control and interference; and State control should be regulated in such a way as not to cramp the curriculum of the secondary schools. He had said in his paper that they would have Government elementary education on a better footing if there had been a diminution of the cramping influence of the Education Department. With reference to what he had said as to a twopenny rate, it was perfectly true that the school board rate had gone up, and he believed it would go up still higher. It would have been perfectly easy to fix a limit by the Act of Parliament, but the House of Commons refused a limit in the

Act of 1870. If they looked to any country where the State was responsible for the whole education, from primary education up to the highest, including the university, they would see that the total disbursements of superior education were much less than the total disbursements on primary education in that country. Therefore they need not apprehend that the total cost of any complete system of secondary education would be in proportion to that of the primary. What the character of the County Board should be was a matter of detail, which he would not go into. But he thought he had intimated what the general scope of his views was. The Commission of 1868 had recommended that there should be a public provision of secondary education, and such a critic as Mr. Mathew Arnold had pleaded for that as one of the great things which was to raise and develop the civilisation of England. Mr. Mathew Arnold in one of his last articles on the subject, after complaining of the apathy of the middle classes, raised the cry *ecce convertimur ad gentes.* He felt sure that what was going on among mechanics and artisans in the large towns showed a general appreciation of the value of education, and he had no fear that they would not demand and establish a system of secondary education.

The CHAIRMAN (Mr. Fitch) said he must ask the section to return their thanks to the readers of the two papers who had initiated so extremely important and useful a discussion. Two abler and more honest representatives of two very different and contending views on the subject, they could not possibly have had ; and he might be permitted to add, from a long personal acquaintance with both of them, that over and above their public and political or clerical standing in regard to the subject, both gentlemen had given a great deal of very earnest personal attention to it. He especially congratulated the meeting upon the fulness and thoroughness with which the subject had been discussed. As that was the last afternoon of a very interesting week he would take the liberty of congratulating the members of the Conference on the fresh and vigorous way in which its discus-

sions had been carried on. He offered the hearty thanks of the section to Mr. Lyulph Stanley and to Canon Daniel.

Mr. STORR asked to be permitted to add the name of Lord Reay, as he was sure there was no man to whom the Conference owed so much, and no man who, if he could have been in two places at one time, would have liked better to have heard Canon Daniel's reply, and to have replied to him. Lord Reay had done everything he possibly could to preserve the harmony and unity of the Conference, and he was very sorry Lord Reay could not be in two places at once.

CONCLUDING MEETING.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 9, 11.30 A.M.

A GENERAL meeting of the Conference was held on Saturday, August 9th, LORD REAY in the chair.

The CHAIRMAN said the first business was to pass a vote of thanks to the Foreign Government delegates, which would be moved by Mr. Fitch.

Mr. J. G. FITCH said that no one could be more sensible than he was of the great value of the co-operation they had had from the gentlemen who represented foreign nations. In every section they had had the advantage of the knowledge and experience brought to them from France, Belgium, Germany, Switzerland,—in fact every part of Europe—and from the United States. He moved that the heartiest thanks be accorded to the foreign delegates who had favoured the Conference with their presence and their counsel.

Dr. GRAHAM said, like Mr. Fitch, he felt quite taken unawares in being called upon to second this important vote, and he could only express his regret that some intimation had not been conveyed to him beforehand, so that he might have had an opportunity of preparing something suitable to the occasion and which would be worthy of the audience and of those gentlemen whose hearty co-operation they had all enjoyed. It had been to him a matter of the greatest pleasure and gratification to find so many distinguished foreigners of various political views all heartily united in working together harmoniously for the success of that great Conference. He begged heartily to second the vote of thanks.

The resolution was put and carried unanimously.

M. LIARD, Rector of the Academy of Caen, who was called upon by Lord Reay to respond for France, said :— I must, in the first place, thank you, in the name of the French delegates, for the courteous welcome we have met with. We believe, and everything in your speech and deeds tends to confirm our opinion, that it was not simply on your part the commonplace, and in some degree, compulsory courtesy extended by hosts to their guests, and that there was mingled with it some sympathy for our ideas in the matter of education.

I thank you also for the profit we have derived from this Conference. We knew, on coming here, that we were not to hear academical discussions on the general questions of teaching and education. Other questions, of a more direct interest, legitimately engrossed your attention. We had neither the presumption nor the rashness to come with the purpose of proposing to you some solutions of these difficulties. Nor did we come with the object of imitating you, for the very good reason that you are inimitable, *Messieurs les Anglais.* Your educational institutions have so much originality, that in order to live and bear fruit, they have need of the British soil, of the British climate ; transplanted on foreign soil, instead of flourishing, they would wither ; we cannot imagine universities like Oxford and Cambridge existing on the banks of the Seine. But if by simply and modestly explaining to you the organisation of our public education, we have been able to be of some service, we congratulate ourselves upon it, in the same way as we are thankful for the lessons we have been taught in England.

Our two nations have a different genius ; each of them does well what belongs to her proper genius, and there would be no advantage for either in trying to copy servilely the other. Your Bacon and our Descartes appear to me to personify, in a striking manner, the different tendencies of the French mind and of the English mind ; Bacon, one of the pioneers of the experimental method, who counsels to gather facts, and to advance only according to the dictates

of experience; Descartes, the liberator of human thought, to whom confidence in the human mind inspired a general conception of the universe. But if ideas without facts are hazardous, facts without ideas are obscure, and there comes a day when experimental science, by new means, comes to the same end in demonstrating these general conceptions, which have hitherto been put forth by pure thought.

In the matter of education, as in everything else, you are, and you will remain, men of experience; we, on the contrary, are, and probably will remain idealists. Whilst in England private initiative gives birth, so to speak, to facts, in raising institutions so varied and so full of vitality, in France thinkers are trying to bring to light principles which the legislators apply in the laws, and which we, in our turn, endeavour to introduce in the manners and customs of our country. But if I have understood aright the discussions which have taken place in this Conference, it would seem as if you were not disinclined to wish for a more regular organization of the flourishing institutions founded by private initiative. You thus follow a path different to ours. It matters little! If we are to proceed, we, French, from ideas to facts, you English, from facts to ideas, we are bound to meet halfway.

His Excellency the BARON DE PENEDO, Brazilian Minister, responding in French, expressed his gratification at the many interesting things he had seen and heard during the Conference.

Of the things he had seen, the most hopeful, in his opinion, seemed to be the universal determination on the part of all the delegates to learn as much as possible from one another, and a desire on the part of all for a full, frank and free exchange of information.

As to what he had heard he could not but feel that the cause for whose advancement they had been called together must be forwarded by the well-considered endeavour of the numerous highly-trained minds which had so earnestly laboured for its promotion. He felt that he would have a most valuable store of knowledge to send home to his country as the result of his connection with the Con-

ference ; and he would look forward to the most beneficial results from the interchange of views, ideas and opinions which had been the outcome of the discussion of the most varied subjects which had been treated of during the week.

Oberschulrath Dr. VON SALLWÜRK, speaking in German, expressed the pleasure it had been to him to spend a week at that important gathering, in the country of Bacon and Locke ; a country in which the principles of those distinguished men had been so thoroughly and practically carried out, and where the sincerest respect for truth and the habit of incorrupted criticism ensured the recognition of all that was really good and useful. He concluded in English as follows :—" My lord, ladies, and gentlemen, our Conference is at an end, and I sincerely regret it. My only duty now is to bid you a very hearty farewell, and to offer you our grateful thanks for your most kind hospitality."

General EATON, in responding for the United States, said :—" My lord, ladies, and gentlemen, it has given me great pleasure to be able to be present at this Conference, even a single day, to witness the widespread and intelligent interest here manifested in this great subject. We, in America, as children of England, cherish kindly sentiments towards the mother country, and think ourselves acquainted with her, and yet when we come here we are always surprised with the marked interest shown in the higher elements of human progress : in this great progress we rejoice that every step is so carefully taken. I can but rejoice in the hospitality which goes along with it, as illustrated last night at the Mansion House, the centre of hospitality in this great metropolis of the world. But we, in America, are not sons of England only ; we draw our citizens from every nation. We are a composite people, and we cannot but look back on the course of those nations whose descendants come with us. The German schoolmaster has been abroad in America, and we are greatly indebted to the early conceptions of the Germans in the organization of education by the State. We are also greatly

indebted to Holland. We are told the story how the early settler in New England resided for a time in Holland, and became acquainted with the ideas of civilisation and education there. We also trace in some of the schools in the State of New York to-day the characteristics of that people. Then we have the Swedish element, and the French element. We have received from many lands many of the best people, and we wish they were all the best. These varied elements have come in as germs which make up our present educational problem, and to-day we are struggling with the problem—for it is a struggle with us; and if I understand it correctly, it is one of those problems given to man with which he must ever struggle. Opposition to his improvement will ever be present, yet he must be firm in the determination to improve. That determination must be in the heart of every individual. We seek universal education, and yet we recognise a large illiteracy; we seek the advancement of all the higher elements of education, and yet we see the opposition. In America there is no decree of education issued by the National Government; but that Government is not indifferent to education; it is its patron. The General Government set apart very early in its history a large extent of territory for the benefit of what we call common schools, and for the benefit of university instruction—instruction graded, as has been well said by an Englishman, from the gutter to the University. There was set apart at that period a larger extent of territory than the whole of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the sale of the lands has constituted the great funds which have given the amplest means for education — elementary, secondary, and superior. Since then the General Government has given more grants of land for the establishment of colleges in the agricultural and mechanical arts. It moreover attempts to keep in mind the experience of the world. Now, as a composite people, as I have suggested, we go back with the origin of these our elements: we observe them in England, we observe them in every nation in Europe; we observe them wherever civilisation has

planted itself, and the office which it is my duty to administer herein finds its appropriate work. We are so anxious to meet the demands of all our people that we cannot dispense with your educational magazines. Perhaps seventy or more come from different quarters of Europe to that office, and we cannot do without the London *Times*, which treats education as no other paper of general news does. I mention these things to show to you the deep interest we have in this Conference. We have noticed here what we try to do for ourselves. My office has 20,000 American correspondents who draw upon this gathering of information, and who receive it in many ways, and there has been growing up amongst them a disposition to learn what you have been doing here. We regret exceedingly that the General Government did not early enough appreciate the importance of this movement to grant an appropriation of money, in the absence of which we are not so largely represented as the leading educators desired to be; for while they are here in limited numbers, let me assure you that the responses of the educational leaders of the country to whom I showed the correspondence of Lord Reay and the communications of the Government with respect to this Conference were most hearty. A few weeks since, at a gathering of 6000 American teachers at the National Association in Wisconsin, I mentioned to the leading men the desire I had that they should be able to come here, and we should have had a large voluntary representation at their own expense entirely if there had been time. They would have come from State supervision, from city supervision, from collegiate instruction, from normal schools, from every department of education, to have been with you on this occasion. It was only by a decision twenty-four hours before I sailed that I was able to be here the short time I have been. It was not only to catch the spirit of the gathering and learn the results of this Conference that I came, but, influenced by the movement started by your lordship, we all began to look to something beyond—we want you to come bodily to America. I remember very well

how in early times International Exhibitions were almost exclusively for commercial purposes; they were great fairs for the sale of merchandise; and I remember well how, under the influence of his Royal Highness the late Prince Consort, England organised the Great Exhibition in 1851, which enlarged all of those endeavours beyond a merely commercial character and gave them an educating character. All their commercial benefits were retained, but at the same time they caught the attention of the world, and carried it into fields of improvement and fields of instruction, and that spirit and that method have remained to this day, not only in England but in every part of the world where these exhibitions are now held. It impresses my mind—I feel it deeply that we are indebted to England and its leadership for another new departure here in an exhibition, especially a Health Exhibition, in which the idea is recognised that health is dependent on education; that the appliances, conditions, ideas, and principles of health and of sanitation can be propagated and made universal, and can produce their ultimate benefits only when education takes them in hand and teaches them to every child in the world. We, therefore, acknowledge our indebtedness to you and your associates for this second departure, and may it be as important and influential and beneficial as the first great departure to which I have alluded. Pardon me for the length of these observations, and kindly indulge me for a few minutes longer. The United States propose to hold an exhibition in New Orleans, the great city at the mouth of the Mississippi, so far out of the usual course of travel as to be comparatively little known, but remarkable for the vastness of its commerce and the readiness of its inter-communication—having, not only access to all the world by the ocean and to the interior of the country by the great river and its affluents, but having six railroads terminating in it, connecting it with every section of our country. In this city, very cosmopolitan, but especially French and Spanish apart from American, this exhibition is to open in December—an International Exhi-

bition. The buildings already erected or planned will cover more space than was covered at Philadelphia, and there will be more articles than were gathered there. The city of New Orleans has subscribed liberally, the Congress of the United States has recently appropriated a million dollars to co-operate as a loan in carrying it out successfully, and further, has made a special appropriation for the executive department as was done at Philadelphia. Such an exhibition has never gone in this way into our Southern states, which are now struggling with all these new ideas on education and industry. Moreover, it is so located that Mexico, the Central American, and South American states, will come to it as they never have anywhere else, and they number between 30 and 40 millions of people; Mexico alone has appropriated 200,000 dollars to exhibit her industries. The managers of this exhibition are anxious above all things that education shall be adequately represented by all nations of the earth, and their urgency has been such that recently I have consented, advising with my Government, to take the general direction of the department of education. This, then, is the point of my urgency. A committee of the eminent educators of the country has been appointed to consider and perfect an International Conference on Education. May I be permitted to carry back to that committee the assurance that this Conference will be continued next winter, at some date to be selected, in New Orleans? Nothing could be more gratifying to that Committee, to the educators of the United States, or to the management of the Exhibition. I once more thank you for the kindness and courtesy you have shown your foreign visitors, as well as for the ideas you have given us in America.

M. LANDOLT, in responding on behalf of Switzerland, said :—My lord, ladies, and gentlemen, I was yesterday on London Bridge, and as I stood a moment to watch the great movements taking place there I saw a small cart wending its way through all the bustle and confusion of that great throng, and I felt that it was like my small

country. There came a slight interruption, and that small cart seemed as if it was going to be crushed, but a policeman, who was standing quietly by, amidst all the turmoil, stretched out his hand and the little cart was saved. How could that policeman get courage and confidence to stand there so quietly where I should not have dared to stand? It was because he was born on English ground; it was the confidence of the law, the confidence he obtained from his childhood which enabled him to do so. Therefore, having all enjoyed the hospitality of the old Corporation of the City, I cannot do otherwise than wish that this venerable institution and other old customs would remain, and that the England who could still give such confidence to the policeman on London Bridge would also give confidence to all the small nations of Europe.

England has ever acted the part of the calm policeman to small states, and has protected them by the simple show of power; and now they all rejoiced to see her unemotionally launch this new vessel of an International Educational Conference. Its purpose of working would be of benefit to large and small nations alike.

Dr. MARKUSOVSKY, delegate of the Ministry for Public Worship and Education in Hungary, said:—For one not fully conversant with the language and no practised orator, it is a difficult matter to take up the thread of speech after so many distinguished and learned members as have now spoken at this Conference.

I can only join in recognising the worth of what has just been said. England has always claimed my greatest regard from early youth upwards, not only on account of her great thinkers, poets, and statesmen, but for the part she has assumed in the civilisation of mankind.

How could I feel otherwise now when of late years I have several times had the opportunity of giving personal testimony to the scientific endeavours and humanitarian aims of her sons both at home and abroad.

I reiterate my thanks and interest the more willingly since many topics have been commented upon at this

Conference which are now occupying much of our attention in Hungary, and which will in all probability be settled there in the same way and on the same principle as in England—by the co-operation of individuality, of communities, and of different religious denominations to the advantage of freedom and civilisation.

Lord REAY then called upon Señor M. B. COSSIO, the Director of the Museum of Education of Madrid, to respond for Spain.

Señor COSSIO, speaking in French, thanked the President and the meeting on behalf of himself and his colleague, Professor Giner de los Rios of the *Institucion Libre* of Madrid, for the generous sentiments expressed in the resolution, and for the opportunities of instruction afforded the representatives of his country. The desire for improved methods of education had manifested itself in his country, and it desired to take its part in the movement towards improvement which had become so general. The speaker was disposed to ask protection at the hands of that vast country, which showed itself so capable of supplying the instruction required; and he would continue to demand it, not for the country of the Inquisition and the bull-fights, but for that of the municipal franchises, the Oxonian professor Luis Vives and the author of Don Quixote.

The CHAIRMAN said he would next call on the representatives of the Netherlands, two countries which were really more united now they were separated than when they were united as one country.

M. COUVREUR (responding for Belgium) said, he had hoped that he had been forgotten, for he felt that, considering the smallness of his country, it was playing too large a part in this great gathering of nations. Besides, his lordship had put him also to the severe test of coming forward to address that large audience without any preparation. Still he would not complain if the audience did not, because that also was a kind of educational system; it taught them to be always prepared to express their feelings. He had been much struck by the illustra-

tion used by his colleague from Switzerland, and felt that his cart also was a very small one, and that if it had to go through the great movement amongst the European nations it was not enough that it should be protected by the policeman, or by the law, but it must be drawn by a good steady horse not by a donkey. The liberal Government in Belgium and the leading people of the same party had tried to have a good, steady horse in front of the little cart, but now that horse was to be changed for a donkey. If the new Bill on Education was brought in before Parliament by the new clerical Government, Belgium would fall to a very low standard and be crushed by other countries in their struggles and competitions. However, he should go away from England with a strong feeling of what he had learned here, that it was not enough for a government and the leading citizens to have good intentions; those intentions must be supported, as they were in England, by the feelings of the people themselves, otherwise the work done will not last, nor bring forth good fruit. Another lesson he should take home was this: he had met here a great number of people of different grades and very divergent opinions, but nothing had struck him more as a characteristic of England, than the fair play between different parties in this sincere desire of promoting education. He thought such gatherings did so much good to education that he would venture to express the hope that the example set by England would be followed in a short time by some State on the Continent. It had been tried in Belgium in 1880 with great success, and as they had just heard it was to be tried also in America, but that was rather far off for many people, and he hoped France or Germany, or even a smaller State might come forward, so that they might hope to meet again in a short time, and have as pleasant a gathering as they had had in London.

Professor Dr. BOSSCHA, Director of the Polytechnic School at Delft, Holland, was then called upon by the president to respond for the Netherlands. He said:

In responding to the invitation of the noble Chairman, I

have only to repeat what has been so fitly expressed by the French delegate, M. Liard. Indeed, all the foreigners who have had the advantage of attending this Conference feel it incumbent upon them to express their thanks not only for the cordial reception extended to them, but for the valuable information and the useful lessons they have derived from this Conference. For myself, if I had to give my personal impression, I might say that I shall return to my country fortified by what I have heard. Whilst listening to the remarkable speeches of our English colleagues, to their discussions on the organization of education in all its branches, I was particularly struck by the fact that in nearly all the difficult questions connected with education, the solution almost unanimously considered as the most suitable was precisely that which had been adopted in my own country. Indeed, the conformity of the views entertained by the most competent authorities in England, and the men who have contributed to the organization of the educational system of the Netherlands was so conspicuous, that one is induced to ask, What may be the cause of it? It is to be found in this fundamental truth, that any system of education calculated to develop the intellectual powers of a nation must be based on liberal principles. Now, from this point of view, there is a complete harmony in the tendencies of the two nations. It is not to such an audience as this that I need explain that the English are a free people. And as to the Dutch, I have only to refer to what has fallen from the United States delegate, General Eaton, who said that in his country it is possible even now to discover and trace to their origin the liberal traditions brought to America by the old Colonists, who came from the Continental shores of the North Sea, that spirit of independence characteristic of the peoples who breathe the pure air of the ocean, live on the sea, and in the continual struggle with the forces of nature cannot bear oppression. I need only quote another American, the illustrious historian Motley, who, in his book 'The Rise of the Dutch Republic,' shows how the inhabitants of the

Netherlands in the sixteenth and the seventeenth centuries, by destroying the clerical despotism of Philip II., have founded political and social liberty in Europe. I have only to recall the great memory of our Stadtholder, your own William III., whose indomitable energy gave the death-blow to the feudal despotism of the Bourbons, just as in our century it was against the united forces of England and Holland that, in the plains of Quatre Bras and Waterloo, was wrecked the military despotism of Napoleon.

Is it not natural, therefore, that England and Holland should unite to combat ignorance? That of the two nations the lesser has already accomplished in the matter of education, what the greater is still desirous of accomplishing, may be explained not only by the fact that the smaller State is also more easily governed, and is able, with the least trouble, to modify its laws and constitution, but also by this reason that in a small country there is much less to be feared the fatal influence of that formidable enemy of a truly liberal education—centralisation which annihilates individual forces, and which, although it can form the masses into regiments, is unable to educate them. Centralisation can hardly exist in Holland, because in no part of the territory is there much distance between the centre and the extremities. I hope, for the sake of my country, that for a long time to come we may not have to unite our forces to those of England to fight despotism from whichever quarter it may threaten us; but we shall ever be allies in the pacific field of education. For if it is always a condition of strength to feel supported by the judgment of those who are pursuing the same aim as ourselves, this is particularly the case in the organization of public education. It is also true that in such questions, as in all practical questions, experience is the only safe guide, but in no other matter is experience more varied, more difficult to gather and to put in practice than in endeavouring to find the most suitable method of developing the human mind. It is from this point of view that the

conformity of opinions existing in our two countries is of especial value to us, and the fact that this harmony of views has been made evident is, for my country, a most valuable result of this Conference.

Professor STEEN, in responding for Denmark, said he could perform but a small part to second the thanks expressed by many others who were better fitted to speak in the English language than himself, but still he would try to add something of his own, every one in his case being obliged to go through his task. Though he had had very little practise in the English language he must express his thanks for the great patience with which anything he had had to say had been listened to. He could speak tolerably well in his mother tongue, and he had learnt a good deal of English from books, both scientific and literary, but unfortunately books did not teach us to speak the language. Still he thought that anything like an expression of good feeling in bad English was better than a bad sentiment in fluent English ; and if, therefore, he had said anything of any use, it could not be said that he had bribed his audience by the sweetness of his tongue, and he certainly should not do so at present. He was sure every foreigner would be thankful for the reception which had been so kindly given to whatever he had said, and in expressing his thanks on this account, he would be seconded by every foreign delegate present.

Councillor MACHIN (in responding for Russia) said he was extremely glad to have the opportunity of adding his word of thanks for the great courtesy, kindness, and attention which had been shown to all foreign representatives who had had the honour of attending this Conference. The part he had had to play had been a very modest one, for he came simply as a learner ; but he was pleased and proud to say that he had acquired a great deal of valuable information.

The system of education in Russia, as in most other countries, was undoubtedly susceptible of improvement, and the attention of the Government had been directed to

that end. If, unfortunately, circumstances had impeded the realisation of the intentions of the administration, a time of tranquillity appeared to be approaching, when a more satisfactory result might be hoped for.

The communication he should have to make to his Government in consequence of what he had learnt at the Conference, would be of great assistance to them in carrying out these plans for extending the benefits of education throughout the Empire.

Dr. BENTZEN, in responding for Norway, said he was at a dinner recently when a Japanese gentleman spoke in his own language, and as he thought this country was a free, all embracing country, he should really like to address the Conference, also in his own tongue. After a few sentences in Norwegian he concluded by saying: My lord, ladies and gentlemen, your country is great in progress, my country is small, but we always try to see what progress is being made in all other countries, and endeavour to profit by it. I thank you warmly for the kindness you have shown and for what we have learned from you.

Mr. B. ST. JOHN ACKERS then said: I have at your lordship's request, and with very great pleasure, to propose a vote of thanks to the Foreign Office and the Education Department, the two departments which have had to do with this great International Education Conference. I cannot help saying that there is one thing, and it is the only thing in connection with these proceedings, that I can find the slightest fault with, and that is that you have asked your lieutenants to-day, my friends Mr. Fitch and Dr. Graham, as well as myself, to speak upon so important an occasion without having given us any notice. We have heard most kind words from the representatives of foreign countries; we have heard of two things which help to make England great, and I hope I may be allowed to add two more. We are ready to obey law and order, and we are ready to obey at a moment's notice, or without any notice at all, a leader in whom we have confidence. I hope the representatives of foreign countries will take away one

thing from this meeting, and that is that we in England, holding different opinions, coming from the country and from the town ; being of different religions and of very opposing views on many other points, are able one and all to work together for the promotion of education. It is one cause of England's greatness that her citizens will unite together for great objects in order that they may be carried out. That good example has been set in this case where Lord Reay has chosen gentlemen of different views to assist him, they all having a hearty desire for the best education of the country. Coming to the special point of the resolution, I am not aware that the Foreign Office has sent a representative to this Conference, but if not it has been engaged in most important work, and I hope it is indeed carrying out the old traditions of this great country which have been so well referred to by the representative from Switzerland, namely, the care of the weak and small, which are by no means the least deserving nations of the earth. With regard to the Educational Department I can only say that our first meeting was presided over by Lord Carlingford, the Lord President of the Privy Council ; Mr. Mundella has also attended the meetings, and on two occasions presided, and he is at present the virtual minister of education in this country. When we come to look into the future and consider the results of the Conference, it may be that the next time we have the pleasure of welcoming our friends from all parts of the world, they may find that for this great question of education we have a special department and a special minister. I have to move a vote of thanks to the Foreign Office and the Education Department for the kind and efficient help they have rendered.

Mr. PHILIP MAGNUS said he had very much pleasure in briefly seconding the resolution so ably proposed by his colleague, Mr. St. John Ackers. Much of the success of the Conference was due to the Foreign Office and the Education Department. It was greatly owing to the action of the Foreign Office that there had been present during

the week so many able and competent representatives of foreign countries, and they had all learned a great deal from the discourses which had been given by those gentlemen. It was scarcely necessary to add anything with regard to the thanks they owed to the Education Department for the assistance it had rendered in making the Conference so great a success. The presence of Lord Carlingford at the opening had been alluded to, when Lord Reay had delivered that magnificent address, which he believed would mark an epoch in the history of the educational movement in this country. They all knew the debt of gratitude they owed to Mr. Mundella, who on two occasions had been present to signify his sympathy with the objects of the Conference, and they had also to thank him for the very able address he gave in section A, and he only regretted he was not able to be present on that occasion.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

Dr. J. H. GLADSTONE said very few words were needed to commend to the meeting the resolution which he had been asked to propose, namely, that a hearty vote of thanks should be given to the City and Guilds Institute for lending the use of those commodious premises for the Conference. They had had placed at their disposal a set of rooms most admirably adapted to that purpose, and very conveniently arranged, so that visitors could pass readily from one to another, and which were also in close proximity to a large part of the Educational Exhibition itself. They had certainly been a long way from France and Belgium, and especially from the almost inaccessible heights inhabited by the educational publishers ; but still they had had a splendid collection close at hand from many countries, geographically situated all the way between Scotland and Japan, thus giving the opportunities of seeing various modes of objective teaching, which no other Conference had ever possessed. In addition to all this the *locale* of the Conference had enabled those who attended to learn how to appreciate something of this great

movement, which had been initiated by the Guilds of London, in carrying out their ancient trusts, and in organising this great movement for the technical education of the country. They had learned at the same time how far they were behind in all matters connected with technical education, whilst at the same time they had visibly before them very definite grounds of hope for the future education of English artizans in all those matters which they required to know. Astronomers were always glad of the opportunity of observing a conjunction of the heavenly bodies, and he might suggest that the foundation of that Institute, and the beautiful Educational Exhibition, which now occupied a portion of it, was a similar conjunction which might well excite the admiration of all those who were working for the same cause in different parts of the world. He had no doubt that those things would bring about a general desire that future generations should be better and wiser than those which had passed away.

Mr. FRANCIS STORR, in seconding the resolution, begged to join with it the name of the representative of the City and Guild Institute, Mr. Philip Magnus.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

Mr. PHILIP MAGNUS said he felt he must apologise for having again to appear and say a few words. He was quite certain, however, that the Council of the City and Guilds' Institute, which he had the honour to represent, were extremely pleased at being able in any way to contribute to the success of the Conference by placing at its disposal the rooms in which the meeting had been held. It seemed to him there was a peculiar appropriateness in the thought that the work which was to be carried on in the great Institute should have been inaugurated by the careful, patient, scientific enquiry into methods of instruction which had taken place during the past week. It had also seemed to him very suggestive that the ancient City and Guilds of London, who were so associated with old traditions, should be now moving in an endeavour to

promote the most modern ideas with regard to education, and that they should have erected that Institution, the object of which would be to carry those modern ideas into every school in the country, from the parish school up to the University.

Professor ARMSTRONG said he was very glad to have the opportunity of confirming what Mr. Magnus had said with reference to the pleasure felt by the Council of the Institute in lending its rooms, and that they would regard it as a most happy augury for the future. Mr. Magnus had spoken of education being dealt with throughout the week in the most scientific manner: indeed, there had been the most obvious desire expressed on all sides, that in future education generally should be conducted on more scientific lines. The only regret that he had was that the claims of science —which had been most fully admitted on all hands in all sections by those who were not special advocates of science —should have been so slightly and feebly urged by representatives of science. There were certain representatives no doubt who had done their best, and he must especially refer to Dr. Gladstone and Professor Fleming Jenkin, but he regretted that the number had unfortunately been so small.

Mr. FRANCIS STORR then moved a vote of thanks to the readers of papers and the secretaries of Sections who had so greatly assisted the work of the Conference. From the opening address of the Chairman down to the concluding note, the paper read by Mrs. Sidgwick, there had been a marvellous amount of solid knowledge given and acquired, and a wonderful unanimity of feeling. No doubt there had been a few discords, which, as Browning said, rushed in that the harmony might be better understood. It would be impertinent for him to attempt to select any of the papers for special mention, in fact he had not the materials for forming a judgment. They must all have regretted the physical impossibility of being in four places at once, and wished like himself, if he might coin a word, to have been for the nonce quadrifurcated. He hoped that drawback to their enjoyment would be removed by the publication in

full of the papers and the debates. Though he could not select any of the readers of papers he must pick out two nations, which perhaps had most contributed to the success of the Conference, one being their neighbour across the channel, so admirably represented by M. Dumont, whose excellent report they had only heard in part, but which they would all be glad to read in full ; and the other Belgium. He mentioned Belgium because he had a lively recollection of the great Conference held there in 1880 ; a conference which was a guide to them, and the lines of which they had attempted to follow. He hoped the note struck by one or two speakers would be followed up, and that further Conferences would take place. Many of them, unfortunately, would be unable to attend the Conference at New Orleans, but if he might be allowed to fish for an invitation, he would suggest that the smallest country in Europe, but perhaps the one which, taken all in all, was the foremost in education, might send an invitation for an Educational Congress next year. One great advantage, if they were asked to attend such a conference in Switzerland, would be this. They all regretted, notwithstanding the many distinguished men and women who had taken part in this Conference, that there were few if any of the heads of the great Oxford and Cambridge colleges, or the head masters of the public schools. A large number of these were at the present moment in Switzerland ; and he was sure if a double attraction were held out to them another year they would have the benefit of their presence. One of the Commissioners of the Exhibition asked him last evening what was the outcome of this week of Conference ; there had been a great deal of talk of course, but could he point to any definite result ? He had not thought of the question, and found it rather difficult to give a satisfactory answer on the spur of the moment, but at any rate he could answer it had shown us our defects, and though perhaps nothing very distinctive had been struck out as to the way in which existing gaps were to be filled up, still this Socratic process of showing us our ignorance was in

itself a gain. He believed that this Socratic process would also prove a Maientic process and produce some very definite results. Two only he would venture to allude to. First of all, although very different views were taken as to the remedy by which the evil was to be cured, there was a consensus of opinion that our secondary education in England was very defective compared with that of any other European country; and, secondly, there was a unanimity of opinion that it was a disgrace to this great city to have no teaching university. Recurring to the vote of thanks to the secretaries of sections, he would remark that one of those gentlemen, although he only had three weeks' holiday in the year instead of the three months which the public schoolmasters had, or the six months which heads of colleges had, and although he had been starting for Scotland when he received the invitation, gave up a week of his three weeks' holiday in order to act as secretary. To this gentleman's name he must add another. He was sure nearly all in the room must have had experience of the courtesy, politeness, and kindness of Mr. Richard Cowper, who had acted as general secretary. But few present could have any idea of the amount of work which had fallen upon that gentleman not only during the present week but for some months preceding the Conference. He therefore begged to move a vote of thanks to the readers of papers, more especially to the ladies, and to the secretaries.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

Archdeacon EMERY said if it were not for the very pleasant task which was given him to perform he should have felt extremely uncomfortable after the words of Mr. Storr reflecting on our ancient universities of Oxford and Cambridge. But he did in some sort represent the interest which he was persuaded, notwithstanding the absence of eminent members of the two universities, they took in education. An eminent prelate once, addressing not an educational conference but a church congress, threw out the suggestion that such gatherings were very peculiar.

Looking at those present that prelate remarked that mankind which took an interest in such special matters, might be divided roughly into two classes, namely, the talkers and the workers, and that perhaps he was not far wrong in saying that he was addressing the talkers whilst the wise workers were staying at home. Now, it might be said with reference to this present Educational Conference that although a large number of the chief workers in education were absent, yet those who were present were also very earnest workers in education. It must be an intense gratification to the Chairman and to all those who had taken a deep interest in the organization and carrying on of this Conference to know that not only from the various countries abroad, but also from the towns and even the villages in England had come the most earnest workers, with varied opinions indeed, but desirous of denying themselves for the good of others, and of exchanging their experience for the good of the whole world. The task assigned to him was a most gratifying one, namely, to ask the meeting to return their hearty thanks to the president for his valuable services. It was to him truly gratifying to be asked to take any part whatever in the International Exhibition and Conference. He felt it a great privilege and a great honour. In looking back at the past it was a satisfaction to remember that when a very young man, just elected to a fellowship at Cambridge, he, together with two or three members of that ancient university, thought there might be good in the Exhibition of 1851, and ventured to put their names down for small sums as guarantors. If there was one thing he could look back to with gratification and thankfulness it was that he took that very small part in showing that there were some in the University at Cambridge, even 30 years and more ago, who felt that there was in the grand idea of the late Prince Consort the germ of a vast power and a vast energy for good which would reach to the furthest ends of the earth. He had always felt that all good ideas, all ideas going forward to the grand ideal of humanity, came from above, and more especially

that the same Divine gracious Power raised up instruments to carry them out. Looking to the experience of that great Exhibition and Conference he thought this truth would be acknowledged by all: first, that there was a sort of divine inspiration in the idea of bringing from all parts of the world those who were deeply and unselfishly interested in the promotion of the best interests of humanity, and also that there had been raised up one who, by his great powers, by his liberality and generosity, had been able to carry forward without the smallest hitch, without the least disagreement, this marvellously fruitful Conference. They certainly owed the deepest debt of gratitude to Lord Reay for the admirable way in which he had conducted the Conference, and before the assembly separated he called upon them to give a most cordial vote of thanks to his Lordship.

In a brief address delivered in French, His Excellency the BARON DE PENEDO, Brazilian Minister, said that nothing could give him greater pleasure on the present occasion than to express his admiration of the able manner in which their noble chairman had discharged the onerous duties which he had so generously undertaken in connection with the work of that Conference. He had, however, something more important than his own views to express upon the subject; and that was the deep appreciation of all those who had been privileged to work under the auspices of the eminent scholar who had presided over their labours, of the thoroughness which he had brought to bear upon every portion of his task. This quality alone would have commanded their gratitude; but all his colleagues would agree with him that in this instance it had been accompanied by a gentle urbanity whose memory would be most grateful to them all.

He need not detain the meeting with any further remarks upon a subject which, he was sure, would require no special pleading on his part to commend itself to all his hearers; he would only say that it afforded him the greatest pleasure to second this motion on behalf of his

Government, of his colleagues, and of the great cause of education.

The resolution was carried unanimously.

The CHAIRMAN: Archdeacon Emery, Your Excellency, ladies, and gentlemen: I need not tell you that there are moments when one feels more than one can say, and this assembly will allow me not to say much on this occasion. If this Conference has succeeded, certainly my share in it has been an extremely modest and humble one. My only desire has been to put my services at your disposal, and Archdeacon Emery has certainly given them a fictitious value. Let me thank him and you very sincerely for your great indulgence. I have this satisfaction, that in former Conferences, when the closing day came, there was a feeling of relief that it had come; but to-day we have all heard it proclaimed by our American friends that they wanted to go on. I may tell you that you could have had more, because a great many papers which were offered were not accepted, as we felt the danger of overwork. If there has been no overwork, as Lord Carlingford when speaking in this hall in opening the Conference feared, it has been because we have divided our labours, and have endeavoured to make the work of the Conference as interesting in every case as it possibly could be made. If, as has been said at this meeting, certain representatives of science and of the Universities have not been here, I can only say I am glad there is that amount of reserve power kept for future occasions. I have to admit that I have made not merely one, but a great many mistakes; but I do not admit that one of them was that I did not tell my honoured colleagues beforehand that they were to speak. I have on no occasion underrated their power; I have never found them wanting, and certainly I should not like to have ended the Conference by throwing the slightest doubt on their ability to do what everybody knew they could do, and my experience is that audiences are always thankful to meet with speakers who do not come with set speeches We have certainly to draw this great lesson from this Con-

ference, that we in England—who unfortunately have not "to wheel a small cart," but have to wield an enormous empire, who have to increase the civilisation, the welfare and the prosperity of nations, not only in Europe but in Asia, Africa, Australia and America—if this gigantic task is to be carried on successfully—must recognise our deficiencies. This Conference has taught us that there is a great deal in our educational system that requires reform. I am not going to summarise the Conference. I could not undertake such a task, even if any one were rash enough to ask for it. When the volume of our transactions appears —and I believe that volume will be as interesting a publication as any that appears this autumn—then will be the time to make a summary; but I wish to tell our foreign guests that even before this Conference we were aware of our educational deficiencies. I shall only mention four documents to point out that the English people are not, in these matters, deluding themselves; but that they are, as usual, improving. We have four reports at present for the Government to consider in the matter of education. In the first place there is a document of great importance on Indian education by a Commission ably presided over by Dr. Hunter In the next place there is that most invaluable document, the report of the Royal Commission presided over by Sir Bernard Samuelson, on Technical Instruction, which will certainly give our Government a great deal to consider. Thirdly, there is the report of the Commissioners on Endowed Schools in Scotland. And, fourthly, there is the report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Education Department.

I think I have said enough to show that we are overhauling our machinery. We feel there are deficiencies in our organization, and we trust that when next our foreign friends come here they will find these reports carried into effect, but I beg to say that they will also probably find new Reports showing that new deficiencies will again be under investigation. We must be constantly progressing, and we are using not only the results of our own inquiries

but looking for those valuable reports which are constantly appearing in all parts of the globe, in our own Colonies as well as in the great Republic over the water, which will undoubtedly influence our own education. We are very thankful for anything the United States may send us. There is not the slightest doubt that the friendship which binds us to the United States, to which such eloquent expression has been given this morning, is for the cause of education in the English speaking parts of the world—and they are the greater part of the world—of the utmost moment. I beg to thank the representatives from America, although they have been rather late in coming, for their cordial co-operation in this Conference. The Conference must come to an end, but the co-operation of workers in the cause of education never comes to an end. We ask for, and we rely upon that co-operation in the future. You have witnessed here that all sections of the English, of the Scotch, and of the Irish Community, although they may differ on a great many subjects are united in this one desire, that the people should be educated, although, perhaps, they may vary as to the method. It is a very fortunate thing that in England the two great political parties are not fighting on questions of education. Our Conservative friends—and many Conservatives have spoken at this Conference—are quite as keen as Liberals can be about educational progress, although they may think this ought to be achieved by a different process. All sections of the press have supported this Conference and have shown their interest in it, and I beg to thank the press, because we must not forget that the press is a great educating agency. In one section we have had a discussion whether a University man should be allowed to enter the Civil Service, or whether that service ought to be recruited by competitive examinations. Now, it is a remarkable fact, that although the press is not recruited by competitive examinations, it is largely recruited from the best men of our Universities. The result of the relation of the press to the Universities is that we have a superiority which I fairly believe the

English press might claim if there were an International Competitive Examination. Before concluding, let me again thank both the foreigners and my countrymen for their powerful assistance in this work. Its organisation has been to me and my worthy colleagues, who have all along assisted me so manfully and vigorously, a cause of the greatest anxiety. We thank you heartily for your co-operation, and we pray God that fighting in this great cause of emancipating the world from the worst form of slavery, the slavery of ignorance, you may be a blessing to your countrymen, and feel convinced that our best wishes will accompany you.

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